REPORT RESUMES

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INTERNATIONAL READING ASSOCIATION CONFERENCE PROCEEDINGS REPORTS ON SECONDARY READING.
BY- SUMMERS, EDWARD G.
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DESCRIPTORS- *ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHIES, *JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS, *SENIOR HIGH SCHOOLS, *READING, READING PROGRAMS, GROUPING (INSTRUCTIONAL PURPOSES), READING SKILLS, READING MATERIALS, CONTENT READING, READING INTERESTS, LINGUISTICS, LIBRARIES, BILINGUALISM, DISADVANTAGED GROUPS, READING DIFFICULTY, INDIANA UNIVERSITY SCHOOL OF EDUCATION

THE IMPORTANT PAPERS ON JUNIOR AND SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL READING PUBLISHED IN THE YEARLY CONFERENCE PROCEEDINGS OF THE ASSOCIATION SINCE 1960 ARE LISTED, AND THE COMPLETE TEXT OF EACH PAPER IS PROVIDED. THE PAPERS ARE PRESENTED WITHIN THE FOLLOWING CATEGORIES--(1) READING PROGRAMS, (2) READING PERSONNEL, (3) METHODS AND GROUPING, (4) DEVELOPING READING SKILLS, (5) MATERIALS, (6) READING AND CONTENT AREAS, (7) DEVELOPING INTERESTS AND TASTES, (8) LINGUISTICS AND THE TEACHING OF READING, (9) THE LIBRARY AND THE READING PROGRAM, (10) READING AND THE BILINGUAL STUDENT, (11) READING AND THE DISADVANTAGED, AND (12) THE DIAGNOSIS AND TREATMENT OF READING DIFFICULTIES. THIS BIBLIOGRAPHY SHOULD BE USEFUL TO PRACTITIONERS AND RESEARCHERS INTERESTED IN SECONDARY READING. AN AUTHOR INDEX IS INCLUDED. (BK)

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ERIC/CRIER READING REVIEW SERIES

Volume 1

Bibliography 3

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International Reading Association Conference Proceedings Reports on Secondary Reading

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The ERIC Clearinghouse on Retrieval of Information and Evaluation on Reading is a national clearinghouse which collects, organizes, analyzes, and disseminates significant research, information, and materials on reading to teachers, administrators, researchers, and the public. ERIC/CRIER was established as a joint project of the International Reading Association and Indiana University in cooperation with the Educational Resources Information Center of the USOE. The Clearinghouse is part of a comprehensive information system being developed for the field of education.

September, 1967

The ERIC/CRIER Reading Review Series has been created to disseminate the information analysis products of the Clearinghouse. Analysis of information can take place on a broad continuum ranging from comprehensive reviews of the state of the knowledge in a given area to bibliographies of citations on various topics. Four genres of documents appear in the Reading Review Series. The first type includes bibliographies, with descriptive abstracts, developed in areas of general interest. The second type consists of bibliographies of citations, or citations and abstracts, developed on more specific topics in reading. The third type provides short, interpretive papers which analyze specific topics in reading using the existing information collection. The final genre includes comprehensive state-of-the-art monographs which critically examine given topics in reading over an extended period of time.

International Reading Association Conference Proceedings Reports on Secondary Reading provides a listing of the important papers on the topics of junior and senior high school reading which have been published in the yearly conference proceedings of the Association since 1960. Published proceedings for the following years have been utilized.

1. New Frontiers in Reading, International Reading Association Conference Proceedings, Vol. 5, 1960.

2. Changing Concepts of Reading Instruction, International Reading Association Conference Proceedings, Vol. 6, 1961.

3. Challenge and Experiment in Reading, International Reading Association Conference Proceedings, Vol. 7, 1962.

4. Reading as an Intellectual Activity, International Reading Association Conference Proceedings, Vol. 8, 1963.

5. Improvement of Reading through Classroom Practice, International Reading Association Conference Proceedings, Vol. 9, 1964.

6. Reading and Inquiry, International Reading Association Conference Proceedings, Vol. 19, 1965.

7. Vistas in Reading, International Reading Association Conference Proceedings, Vol. 11, Part 1, 1966.

8. Combining Research Results and Good Practice, International Reading Association Conference Proceedings, Vol. 11, Part 2, 1966.

All papers which discussed topics on secondary reading were collected and reviewed. After analysis, 180 papers were selected for inclusion. A descriptive annotation was prepared by advanced graduate students for each entry. The title of the entry and the annotation indicate the major emphasis of the paper. The papers are classified under the broad headings of senior (grades 10, 11, 12) and junior (grades 7, 8, 9) high school and indexed within these classifications using the following topics.

I. Reading Programs

II. Reading Personnel

III. Methods and Grouping

IV. Developing Reading Skills

V. Materials

VI. Reading and Content Areas

VII. Developing Interests and Tastes

VIII. Linguistics and the Teaching of Reading

IX. The Library and the Reading Program

X. Reading and the Bilingual Student

XI. Reading and the Disadvantaged

XII. Diagnosis and Treatment of Reading Difficulties

The bibliography is organized in three parts. Part I consists of a citation bibliography with brief annotations. This section is numbered consecutively from 1 through 180. Part II is keyed to Part I and contains the complete text for each entry. If the user is interested in more information than that given in the brief annotation and citation for study 121, for example, in Part I he can turn to number 121 in Part II and read the complete report. Part III consists of a complete author index for the bibliography.

(Appreciation is expressed to Margaret Burd, Gail Kelly, Sharon Watson and Mary Rinehart for their aid in compiling the bibliography.)

Part I

Reading in the Senior High School
(Grades 10, 11, 12)

I. READING PROGRAMS

1. Bamman, Henry A. "Changing Concepts in Reading in Secondary Schools," Changing Concepts of Reading Instruction, 6 (1961), 41-45.

   Traces the progress and development of reading instruction and presents a plan of action for making reading instruction the responsibility of each teacher.

2. Bond, Guy L. "Unsolved Problems in Secondary Reading," Changing Concepts of Reading Instruction, 6 (1961), 200-203.

   Discusses problems related to instructional outcomes and problems related to adjusting to ability differences.

3. Buehler, Rose Burgess. "Innovations in High School Reading Instruction," Vistas in Reading, 11, Part 1, (1966), 169-171.

   Suggests some of the innovations in American High School Reading to be expanded library facilities, content area reading, work with reading specialists, and guidance services to all pupils.

4. Fay, Leo. "Implications of Classroom Orgainization for Reading Instruction," Improvement of Reading Through Classroom Practice, 9 (1964), 59-60.

   Presents characteristics of new organizational approaches.

5. Gardner, George R. "Programming Instruction to Meet Individual Differences," Vistas in Reading, 11, Part 1, (1966), 150-153.

   Attempts to offer a rationale for the position that the educator's task is to seek to use new ideas and techniques flexibly, effectively, and professionally, in the best interest of their students.

6. Green, Margaret G. "Solving Vocational and Personal Problems Through Reading," Improvement of Reading Through Classroom Practice, 9 (1964), 205-206.

   Outlines a summer reading course offered by Daytona Beach Junior College.

7. Janes, Edith C. "Reading Guidance in Departmentalized Programs," Vistas in Reading, 11, Part 1, (1966), 230-233.

Cooperation between parents, school staff, and students is necessary in helping students learn to solve the problems facing them at each step in their development.

8. Jenkinson, Marion D. "Preparing Readers for an Automated Society," Vistas in Reading, 11, Part 1, (1966), 279-282.

Anticipates the educational problems of the forthcoming "Age of Automation," stressing the need for quality reading programs.

9. Johnson, Gwen F. "A Plan for Low Achievers in Reading on the Secondary Level," Improvement of Reading Through Classroom Practice, 9 (1964), 62-64.

Describes in detail the reading program of the Beaufort County Reading Project.

10. Karlin, Robert. "Nature and Scope of Developmental Reading in Secondary Schools," Reading as an Intellectual Activity, 8 (1963), 52-56.

Explores the different elements of developmental reading programs and provides guidelines for consideration in planning a program.

11. Lucar, Jan. "Initiating a Developmental Reading Program in High School," Vistas in Reading, 11, Part 1, (1966), 42-45.

Cites a current example of a school system initiating a developmental reading program beyond grade six; stressing the importance of continued experimentation and faculty cooperation.

12. Newton, J. Roy. "Organizing and Scheduling a Developmental Reading Program," Vistas in Reading, 11, Part 1, (1966), 153-155.

Considers the many problem areas involved in organizing for a developmental reading program, stressing the importance of including remediation, skill development, and college-bound materials.

13. O'Donnell, C. Michael. "Teaching Reading via Television," Improvement of Reading Through Classroom Practice, 9 (1964), 139-140.

Describes "High School Reading," a 10-week basic remedial course consisting of 20 30-minute television lessons.

14. Scofield, Alice. "What's Wrong With Reading Programs," Combining Research Results and Good Practices, 11, Part 2, (1966), 61-65.

Suggests that some of the problems in reading programs are due to hasty organization, sparce research, and lack of concern for individual student's needs.

15. Simpson, Elizabeth A. "Responsibility for Secondary Level Reading Programs," Changing Concepts of Reading Instruction, 6 (1961), 203-206.

Discusses the components of a balanced program, and the responsibilities and roles of the different members of the reading team.

16. Sparks, J. E. "Experience Needs of Capable Students," Reading and Inquiry, 10 (1965), 57-59.

Discusses the criteria, curriculum, procedures, and evaluation of the seminars for the academically-talented at Beverly Hills High School.

17. Wilson, Richard C. "Organizing Reading Instruction in Departmentalized Schools," Vistas in Reading, 11, Part 1, (1966), 145-147.

Points out that departmentalization of a school's reading program can be effective; keeping in mind the necessity of serving individual needs.

18. Wilson, Rosemary Green. "Changing Concepts of Reading Instruction in the Development of Basic Skills," Changing Concepts of Reading Instruction, 6 (1961), 45-48.

Presents a brief background of the development of reading instruction and discusses the organization, approaches, and materials of the reading program.

II. READING PERSONNEL

19. Artley, Sterl A. "Educating Teachers for Secondary Reading Instruction," Improvement of Reading Through Classroom Practice, 9 (1964), 19-20.

Expresses need for adequate pre-service preparation for teacher trainees and in-service programs for those now teaching.

20. Haven, Julia M. "Opportunities for the High School Reading Specialist," Reading and Inquiry, 10 (1965), 230- 232.

Discusses the role of the specialist in regards to federally-funded programs, teacher responsibility, and life-time reading goals.

21. Jan-Tausch, James. "Qualifications of Reading Clinicians," Reading and Inquiry, 10 (1965), 229-230.

Discusses the functions and responsibilities inherent in the clinician's position and describes the necessary experience and training.

III. METHODS AND GROUPING

22. Carlson, Eleanor G. "Sound Principles for Individualizing a High School Reading Class," Reading and Inquiry, 10 (1965), 160-163.

Illustrates ways in which various approaches to individualizing can be weighed in terms of factors influencing instruction.

23. Clark, Bernice T. "Organization Based on Appraisal," Reading and Inquiry, 10 (1965), 139-141.

Discusses various ways to assess student's abilities and several means for utilizing grouping.

24. DeBoer, John J. "Through Organizational Practices," New Frontiers in Reading 5 (1960), 36-40.

Discusses the problems and criteria of grouping, makes provision for individualization in regular classes, and offers proposals for a reading program.

25. Gold, Lawrence. "A Comparative Study of Individualized and Group Reading Instruction with Tenth Grade Underachievers in Reading," Improvement of Reading Through Classroom Practice, 9 (1964), 102-104.

Applies elementary-type reading instruction to secondary underachievers.

26. Karlin, Robert. "Methods of Differentiating Instruction at the Senior High School Level," Improvement of Reading Through Classroom Practice, 9 (1964), 60-62.

Discusses different features of both individualization and grouping in reading instruction.

27. Melnik, Amelia. "The Formulation of Questions as an Instructional-Diagnostic Tool," Reading and Inquiry, 10 (1965), 36-39.

Advocates the use of questions for revealing individual differences and for focusing on the process rather than the content of reading.

28. Nason, H. M. "Using the Multi-Media in Building Reading Power," Improvement of Reading Through Classroom Practice, 9 (1964), 134-135.

Discusses different facets of multi-media and offers suggestions for making the approach more successful.

29. Skeen, Bearnice. "Individualizing Instruction Through Pupil-Team," Improvement of Reading Through Classroom Practice, 9 (1964), 104-105.

Considers several guidelines for procedure and evaluation of pupil-team learning.

30. Weber, Martha Gesling. "Means Versus Ends," Improvement of Reading Through Classroom Practice, 9 (1964), 101-102.

Discusses four general approaches to individualized instruction in reading.

IV. DEVELOPING READING SKILLS

31. Cooper, J. Louis. "The Effect of Training in Listening on Reading Achievement," Vistas in Reading, 11, Part 1, (1966), 431-434.

Reports research findings on the relationship between listening and reading ability, suggesting that more attention be given to improving listening skills.

32. Cutter, Virginia. "And Beyond the Lines," Vistas in Reading, 11, Part 1, (1966), 64-68.

Suggests four steps to include when teaching critical reading: critical thinking, reading between the lines, reading beyond the lines, and the ability to question and generalize.

33. Fridian, O.S.F. Sister M. "Strengthening Reading Skills in the Senior High School," Vistas in Reading, 11, Part 1, (1966), 261-265.

Stresses the importance of continuing the teaching of skills in reading at the high school level, concentrating on vocabulary and rate.

34. Ives, Sumner. "Recognizing Grammatical Clues," Improvement of Reading Through Classroom Practice, 9 (1964), 233-234.

Explains clues which are all examples of interaction between grammatical forms and lexical meanings.

35. Levin, Beatrice Jackson. "Developing Flexibility in Reading," Improvement of Reading Through Classroom Practice, 9 (1964), 82-84.

Describes program of defining and developing flexibility of reading rate according to reader's purpose and difficulty of material.

36. McDonald, Arthur S. "Flexibility in Reading Approaches: Measurement and Development," Combining Research Results and Good Practices, 11, Part 2, (1966), 67-71.

Defines reading flexibility and discusses the general problems involved in varying one's reading rate with the different types of material encountered.

37. Moore, Walter J. "Improving Reading Rates," Improvement of Reading Through Classroom Practice, 9 (1964), 135-136.

Discusses several reasons for failure of rate development and offers overall suggestions for the reading programs.

38. Rankin, Earl F. Jr. "A New Method of Measuring Reading Improvement," Reading and Inquiry, 10 (1965), 207-210.

Presents evidence showing that current methods are faulty and discusses a new technique for measurement.

39. Schick, George. "Developing Vocabulary and Comprehension Skills at the Secondary Level with Particular Attention to Motivational Factors," Reading as an Intellectual Activity, 8 (1963), 60-63.

Discusses the analytical and contextual approaches in vocabulary growth and considers both general factors and analytical exercises in regard to comprehension.

40. Shafer, Robert E. "Using New Media to Promote Effective Critical Reading," Improvement of Reading Through Classroom Practice, 9 (1964), 137-139.

Defines critical reading and discusses the environmental element; discusses current methodological and technological developments.

41. Smith, Helen K. "Research in Reading for Different Purposes," Changing Concepts of Reading Instruction, 6 (1961), 119-122.

Investigates the abilities of and the methods used by 15 good and 15 poor readers when reading for two divergent purposes, details and general impressions.

42. Wolf, Willavene, "The Logical Dimension of Critical Reading," Reading and Inquiry, 10 (1965), 121-124.

Presents two aspects of logic in critical reading: validity and reliability of materials and validity of teaching.

V. MATERIALS

43. Bliesmer, Emery P. "Organizational Patterns and Materials in Secondary Reading Programs," Combining Research Results and Good Practices, 11, Part 2, (1966), 47-53.

Reviews 37 research and fugitive articles on patterns and materials in reading programs from 1960 through 1965.

44. Early, Margaret J. "Through Methods and Materials," New Frontiers in Reading, 5 (1960), 40-44.

Discusses lecture-demonstration methods in team teaching and materials, beginning with the single textbook and progressing to differentiated instruction.

45. Gardner, Olcott. "The Use of Audio-Visual Aids in Independent Study," Vistas in Reading, 11, Part 1, (1966), 123-126.

Illustrates the benefits of audio-visual aids in letting students lead themselves, inductively, in the learning process.

46. Hafner, Lawrence E. "Critical Problems in Improving Readability of Materials," Vistas in Reading, 11, Part 1, (1966), 116-119.

Offers eleven guidelines to children's writers, aimed at improving readability of children's books.

47. Hill, Walter. "Improving Textbook Interpretation," Combining Research Results and Good Practices, 11, Part 2, (1966), 55-60.

Surveys the implications research findings hold for improving the use of textbooks as instructional resources.

48. Joll, Leonard. "Evaluating Materials for Reading Instruction at the Secondary Level," Challenge and Experiment in Reading, 7 (1962), 198-200.

Evaluates materials according to the following categories: vocabulary, organization, critical thinking, appreciation, speed, comprehension, and word attack.

49. Kopel, David. "The Rationale for Reading Textbooks," Improvement of Reading Through Classroom Practice, 9 (1964), 82.

Describes briefly reading materials beginning with the middle thirties through the present and discusses the objectives underlying their construction.

VI. READING AND CONTENT AREAS

50. Berg, Paul C. "Reading in Literature--A Lively Art," Reading and Inquiry, 10 (1965), 103-106.

Discusses world culture, teacher attitudes, and mass media in regards to the teaching of literature.

51. Durr, William K. "Improving Secondary Reading Through Content Subjects," Reading as an Intellectual Activity, 8 (1963), 66-69.

Emphasizes adequate evaluation of abilities, direct teaching in vocabulary, and purposeful reading.

52. Fay, Leo. "Reading Instruction in the High School Literature Class," Challenge and Experiment in Reading, 7 (1962), 49-52.

Discusses the reading skills that relate directly to successful reading of literature.

53. Hahn, Harry T. "Who Teaches Reading in the Secondary School?" Challenge and Experiment in Reading, 7 (1962), 45-47.

Emphasizes that direct teaching of reading and study skills is not enough. Content area teachers must be involved. In addition, teaching instruction and materials must be integrated into the entire curriculum.

54. Herber, Harold L. "An Experiment in Teaching Reading Through Social Studies Content," Changing Concepts of Reading Instruction, 6 (1961), 122-124.

Discusses the basis and structure of an experiment now in progress and gives a mid-way evaluation of the study.

55. Herber, Harold L. "Developing Reading Skills Demanded by Content Subjects," Vistas in Reading, 11, Part 1, (1966), 68-71.

Identifies five critical principles of instruction which should be considered and practiced by all teachers.

56. Horsman, Gwen. "Some Useful Classroom Practices and Procedures in Reading in the Content Fields," Improvement of Reading Through Classroom Practice, 9 (1964), 44-45.

Reviews some practices which have helped eliminate reading difficulties in the different fields of instruction.

57. Jewett, Arno. "Learning to Write Through Reading Literature," Improvement of Reading Through Classroom Practice, 9 (1964), 123-125.

Presents three arguments for using literature as a medium for teaching writing and describes the University of Nebraska program in composition.

58. McDonald, Arthur. "Reading in History: Concept Development or Myth Making," Reading and Inquiry, 10 (1965), 102-103.

Defines history as research for investigation of relevant data, and describes student's task as one of achieving a conceptual framework in regards to history.

59. Moore, William II. "The Creative Approach," Reading and Inquiry, 10 (1965), 81-83.

Suggests that literature is concerned with all the language arts and lists some literary skills and activities involved in the literature lesson.

60. Niles, Olive S. "Developing Essential Reading Skills in the English Program," Reading and Inquiry, 10 (1965), 34-36.

Offers criteria for appraising the success of the English teacher: his understanding of the reading process, seeing relationships, choosing functional material, and setting a defensible goal.

61. Niles, Olive S. "How Much Does a Content Teacher Need to Know About Methods of Teaching Reading?" Improvement of Reading Through Classroom Practice, 9 (1964), 41-42.

Describes six lessons which provide a foundation from which a teacher can develop as a content teacher of reading.

62. Petitt, Dorothy. "Reading Literature: An Act of Creation," Vistas in Reading, 11, Part 1, (1966), 176-181.

Lists three abilities demanded in reading literature as an act of creation and suggests that when teaching reading this way, educators are helping children become tuned-in to civilization and history.

63. Shaw, Philip. "An Integrated Secondary English Curriculum Offering Reading Instruction," Vistas in Reading, 11, Part 1, (1966), 171-176.

Describes the principles and activities by which an in-service course, in New York State, sought to achieve the introduction of the reading instruction into, and its integration with, the traditional English curriculum.

64. Simmons, John S. "The Reading of Literature: Poetry as an Example," Vistas in Reading, 11, Part 1,(1966), 93-100.

Discusses the apparent pitfalls in teaching the reading of literature to high school students and offers possible ways of handling problems.

65. __________, "Teaching Reading and Physics Simultaneously," Improvement of Reading Through Classroom Practice, 9 (1964), 84-85.

Cites an experiment which shows reading instruction as a part of course content.

66. Van Gilder, Lester L. "Meeting Reading Demands of the Content Subjects," Vistas in Reading, 11, Part 1, (1966), 39-42.

Attempts to awaken subject-matter teachers to the necessity of teaching reading skills in their content area.

67. Vinagro, John V. "Rate of Comprehension in the Content Subjects," Improvement of Reading Through Classroom Practice, 9 (1964), 42-44.

Discusses the needs, problems, advantages, and principles connected with flexibility of reading.

VII. DEVELOPING INTERESTS AND TASTES

68. Cooper, J. Louis. "The Basic Aim of the Literature Program," Improvement of Reading Through Classroom Practice, 9 (1964), 188-189.

Lists three types of illiterates and emphasizes aspects of promoting lifetime reading habits.

69. Courtney, Brother Leonard. "Realizing True Value in Literature," Vistas in Reading, 11, Part 1, (1966), 90-93.

Surveyed seventy-eight teachers in thirteen secondary schools, trying to determine two things, (1) the values derived from studying literature, and (2) how these values can be achieved by high school students.

70. George, Marie G. "Stimulating Reading in the Senior High School," Improvement of Reading Through Classroom Practice, 9 (1964), 105-107.

Considers methods for stimulating interest and developing reading skills.

71. Gunn, M. Agnella. "A Different Drummer," Reading as an Intellectual Activity, 8 (1963), 160-163.

Stresses need for building reading tastes as soon as reading begins along five levels of instruction.

72. Gunn, M. Agnella. "Promoting a Love Affair with Books," Combining Research Results and Good Practices, 11, Part 2, (1966), 37-45.

Generates thought to promoting lasting relationships between students and books by, (1) developing their reading power, (2) disciplining their tastes, (3) deepening their views of the world.

73. Llewellyn, Evelyn. "Developing Lifetime Reading Habits and Attitudes Through Literature," Reading and Inquiry, 10 (1965), 79-81.

Identifies some of the habits and attitudes to be developed and stresses wide knowledge and careful guidance on the part of the teacher.

74. Russell, David H. "Impact of Reading on the Personal Development of Young People," New Frontiers in Reading, 5 (1960), 77-82.

Discusses the five levels of reading and the effects each of these levels has on personal development.

75. Sohn, David A. "Stimulating Student Reading: The Paperback as a Cool Medium Afloat in a Sea of Hot and Cold Media," Reading and Inquiry, 10 (1965), 163-166.

Concentrates on the many and varied opportunities the paperback offers the reading teacher.

76. Strang, Ruth. "The Influence of Personal Factors on the Reading Development of Young People," New Frontiers in Reading, 5 (1960), 82-87.

Reviews literature on personal factors influencing reading development and notes that while much attention has been given to negative characteristics, little has been given to positive factors.

77. Torrant, Katherine E. "Survey of Factors Involved in Building the Lifelong Reading Habit and Practices Which Promote It," Improvement of Reading Through Classroom Practice, 9 (1964), 187-188.

Considers several ingredients which promote a life-long reading habit.

78. Weiss, M. Jerry. "Promoting Independent Reading in the Secondary School," Reading as an Intellectual Activity, 8 (1963), 63-66.

Stresses planning thematic units based upon a thorough knowledge of the interests and abilities of the class.

79. Witty, Paul. "Some Interests of High School Boys and Girls," Improvement of Reading Through Classroom Practice, 9 (1964), 186-187.

Reports results of a series of studies of the interests of children and youth.

VIII. LINGUISTICS AND THE TEACHING OF READING

80. Kegler, Stanley B. "Language, Linguistics, and the Teaching of Reading," Improvement of Reading Through Classroom Practice, 9 (1964), 231-233.

Suggests developments in language studies which are important in the instruction of reading.

81. Lefevre, Carl A. "Contributions of Linguistics to English Composition," Reading and Inquiry, 10 (1965), 250-252.

Presents the rationale of a basic composition program designed for students in Grades Eleven through Fourteen.

82. Malmstrom, Jean. "Linguistics and the Teacher of English," Reading and Inquiry, 10 (1965), 248-250.

Presents some fundamental principles of linguistics and looks at linguistically-oriented textbooks.

IX. THE LIBRARY AND THE READING PROGRAM

83. Canale, Orlando J. "Establishing a Working Relationship Between the Librarian and the Consultant," Improvement of Reading Through Classroom Practice, 9 (1964), 204-205.

Presents a three-fold teamwork approach for more effective use of library resources.

84. Duggins, Lydia A. "Teacher-Librarian Teamwork in the High School Reading Program," Improvement of Reading Through Classroom Practice, 9 (1964), 203-204.

Stresses importance of shared experiences, mutual goals, and general enlistment of the children and the community in the library program.

85. Strang, Ruth. "How the Library Contributes to Students of Different Abilities and Backgrounds," Improvement of Reading Through Classroom Practice, 9 (1964), 202-203.

Shows how libraries function for individualized instruction, retarded readers, and independent learners.

X. READING AND THE BILINGUAL STUDENT

86. Robinett, Ralph F. "Skills or Concepts in Second Language Reading," Improvement of Reading Through Classroom Practice, 9 (1964), 169-171.

Analyzes a narrow but fundamental range of problems related to bilingualism and the conflict of languages and alphabet systems.

87. Sizemore, Mamie. "Teaching Reading to the Linguistically Disadvantaged at Senior High Level," Improvement of Reading Through Classroom Practice, 9 (1964), 171.

Discusses the cultural-meaning problems of the bilingual student in the high school classroom.

88. Smith, Edgar Warren. "A High School Program for the Bilingual," Reading and Inquiry, 10 (1965), 280-282.

Gives a detailed discussion of materials, methods, and pupil growth in a program for bilinguals.

89. Zintz, Miles V. "Reading Success of High School Students Who Are Speakers of Other Languages," Reading and Inquiry, 10 (1965), 277-280.

Reports the historical background of achievement problems, the cultural conflicts, and the problems of learning English as a second language for the Spanish-American Indian students of New Mexico.

XI. READING AND THE DISADVANTAGED

90. Dorney, William P. "Effect of Reading Instruction on Modification of Certain Attitudes," Improvement of Reading Through Classroom Practice, 9 (1964), 171-173.

Suggests that the treatment of delinquents retarded in reading should stress reading instruction as a therapeutic instrument for rehabilitation.

91. Downing, Gertrude L. "Guiding New Teachers in Secondary School Reading Instruction for 'Children Without,'" Vistas in Reading, 11, Part 1, (1966), 338-340.

Reviews experiences of three teachers working on the BRIDGE Project; study of meaningful reading instruction.

92. Grant, Eugene B. "Building Rapport with the Disadvantaged," Improvement of Reading Through Classroom Practice, 9 (1964), 173-174.

Stresses development of mutual respect through understanding, recognition of limitations, classroom atmosphere, and appropriate materials.

93. Spiegler, Charles G. "As the Bee Goes to the Flower for its Nectar," Reading as an Intellectual Activity, 8 (1963), 155-159.

Attempts to bridge the gap between the advantaged and the disadvantaged through the power of positive reading, using all possible motivational forces.

94. Thomas, Dominic. "Our Disadvantaged Older Children," Vistas in Reading, 11, Part 1, (1966), 349-252.

Presents the characteristics of the socially deprived older children, making suggestions for planning meaningful curricula.

95. Watson, Richard L. "Early Identification of High School Dropouts," Reading and Inquiry, 10 (1965), 265-267.

Reviews the problem, procedure, results and recommendations of a dropout study conducted in Evansville, Indiana.

96. Watson, Richard L. "Reducing the Number of Drop-Outs," Vistas in Reading, 11, Part 1, (1966), 282-285.

Expresses concern for the Drop-Out, offering a discussion of characteristics of the Drop-Out, responsibility for the Drop-Out, and possible leadership programs for helping the Drop-Out.

XII. DIAGNOSIS AND TREATMENT OF READING DIFFICULTIES

97. Abrams, Jules C. "The Rule of Personality Defenses in Reading," Improvement of Reading Through Classroom Practice, 9 (1964), 153-154.

Examines emotional factors and ego defenses which may impede the process of learning.

98. Fox, Ester. "What Can We Do for the Disabled Reader in the Senior High School?" Improvement of Reading Through Classroom Practice, 9 (1964), 154-155.

Discusses both unique and common factors to be considered in setting up a secondary reading program.

99. Karlin, Robert. "Characteristics of Sound Remedial Reading Instruction," Reading and Inquiry, 10 (1965), 184-186.

Presents methods of instruction based upon well-known principles of learning.

100. Kress, Roy A. "Identifying the Reading Difficulties of the College-Bound Student," Vistas in Reading, 11, Part 1, (1966), 257-261.

Examines some methods of identifying and helping the underachieving reader who plans for college admission; screening techniques, diagnostic techniques, and better pupil-teacher contact.

101. Mills, Donna M. "Corrective and Remedial Reading Instruction in the Secondary School," Reading as an Intellectual Activity, 8 (1963), 56-59.

Discusses different types of programs, guidelines, and activities for both teachers and students, as well as reviews of some specific projects.

102. Ross, Joan B. "Remedial Reading Techniques a High School Teacher Can Use," Reading and Inquiry, 10 (1965), 182-184.

Summarizes some of the ways a classroom teacher can help students develop study skills in order to conquer course materials.

103. Smith, Helen K. "Remedial Instruction in Comprehension," Improvement of Reading Through Classroom Practice, 9 (1964), 152-153.

Lists six steps in remediation of comprehension, planned in harmony with the needs of the students.

104. Van Guilder, Lester L. "Improving the Comprehension of the Emotionally Disturbed," Reading and Inquiry, 10 (1965), 205-207.

Discusses causal factors and psychological functions underlying reading disabilities.

105. Vick, Nancy O'Neill. "High School Reading for the Severely Retarded," Vistas in Reading, 11, Part 1, (1966), 227-230.

Encourages teachers of severely retarded readers to try new approaches, to get acquainted with each pupil and provide a sound plan for reteaching the skills and concepts each lacks.

Reading in the Junior High School
(Grades 7, 8, 9)

I. READING PROGRAMS

106. Andresen, Oliver S. "An Experiment in Class Organization for High School Freshmen," Improvement of Reading Through Classroom Practice, 9 (1964), 57-58.

Discuss the merits of scheduling three required class days per week and two optional days in which the students engage in independent study.

107. Cooke, Dorothy E. "Techniques of Organization," Reading and Inquiry, 10 (1965), 133-136.

Discusses three different programs of reading, including an approach for retarded readers, a creative approach, and a general developmental approach.

108. Field, Carolyn W. "Stemming the Pressure on the 'So-Called' Advanced Reader," Improvement of Reading Through Classroom Practice, 9 (1964), 198-199.

Emphasizes the responsibility of both parents and teachers for personal guidance and realistic expectations of junior high students.

109. Humphrey, Jack W. "Effective Ways of Organizing Classroom Activities," Vistas in Reading, 11, Part 1, (1966), 147-150.

Concludes that although there are numerous methods of organizing for successful classroom reading programs, the vital point is teacher dedication and willingness to serve the needs of each student.

110. Janes, Edith C. "Reading Essentials in the Junior High School Program," Improvement of Reading Through Classroom Practice, 9 (1964), 76-78.

Gives a detailed plan for instruction in the complex skills of mature reading.

111. McInnes, John. "Can Organization Patterns Enable Us to Improve Reading Skills?" Improvement of Reading Through Classroom Practice, 9 (1964), 58.

Stresses importance of constant testing of organizational patterns for instructional possibilities or limitations.

112. Natchez, Gladys. "Pupil Behavior: A Clue to Teaching Reading," Improvement of Reading Through Classroom Practice, 9 (1964), 150-152.

Cites an example of a complete and successful restructuring of a reading program as a result of understanding meanings behind behavior.

113. Paulo, William E. "Improving Reading in Junior High School," Challenge and Experiment in Reading, 7 (1962), 164-166.

Identifies the primary considerations for organizing or evaluating a reading program.

114. Ross, Totsie W. "Basic Considerations in a Junior High School Reading Program," Vistas in Reading, 11, Part 1, (1966), 202-205.

Looks at the necessary parts of a total Reading program, theory, leadership and personnel, organization, materials, and in-service training.

115. Torrant, Katherine E. "Reading Centers and New Developments in the Teaching of Reading in the Junior High School," Changing Concepts of Reading Instruction, 6 (1961), 124-127.

Presents a detailed picture of the reading program at Newton, Massachusetts, including research endeavors, roles of the specialists, available materials, and reactions to the program.

116. Vickery, Verna. "Practical Problems and Programs," Reading and Inquiry, 10 (1965), 274-276.

Analyzes different programs in teaching reading to speakers of another language.

117. Wilson, Robert M. "New Perspectives on the Multi-Media and the Junior High Reading Program," Improvement of Reading Through Classroom Practice, 9 (1964), 132-133.

Looks at two different programs, each of which emphasizes flexibility, individual differences, student interests, and periodic evaluation.

II. READING PERSONNEL

118. Early, Margaret J. "The Interrelatedness of Language Skills," Reading and Inquiry, 10 (1965), 32-34.

Stresses that every teacher be a teacher of not just reading, but of language skills.

119. Stanchfield, Jo M. "The Role of the Reading Specialist in the Junior High School," Improvement of Reading Through Classroom Practice, 9 (1964), 51-52.

Discusses the organizational patterns, functions, and future role of the reading specialist.

III. METHODS AND GROUPING

120. Briggs, Daniel A. "Grouping Guidelines," Improvement of Reading Through Classroom Practice, 9 (1964), 50-51.

Suggests basic principles to be considered in establishing a grouping program.

121. Carline, Donald E. "Applying Clinical Practices to Individualizing the Junior High School Reading Program," Reading and Inquiry, 10 (1965), 154-156.

Analyzes and conceptualizes reading difficulties from a clinical approach, but with terms and procedures suitable for the classroom teacher.

122. Durrell, Donald D. "Evaluating Pupil Team Learning in Intermediate Grades," New Frontiers in Reading, 5 (1960), 112-115.

Reports pupil team learning as a method of providing for individual differences.

123. Ladd, Eleanor M. "Individualizing Instruction in Classroom Corrective Situations," Vistas in Reading, 11, Part 1, (1966), 254-256.

Analyzes the importance of individualizing instruction and lists some successful ground-rules which have enabled some teachers to handle corrective situations.

124. Lauck, Mary Ruth. "Practical Individualization with Basal Materials," Improvement of Reading Through Classroom Practice, 9 (1964), 80-82.

Outlines methods, procedures, and activities which have been tested in a classroom situation.

125. Putnam, Lillian R. "Controversial Aspects of Individualized Reading," Improvement of Reading Through Classroom Practice, 9 (1964), 99-100.

Criticizes, on the basis of observations, certain practices in individualized reading programs and gives some suggestions for improvement.

126. Sartain, Harry W. "Evaluating Research on Individualized Reading," Improvement of Reading Through Classroom Practice, 9 (1964), 96-98.

Raises questions to consider in evaluation of research reports.

127. Underwood, William J. "Effective Grouping in Junior High School," Reading and Inquiry, 10 (1965), 136-139.

Traces the various trends in grouping and reviews a current plan.

IV. DEVELOPING READING SKILLS

128. Caroline, Sister M. IHM. "Word Recognition and Vocabulary Development," Reading and Inquiry, 10 (1965), 227-229.

Explains the various implications and operations of word recognition.

129. Cleland, Donald L. "A Construct of Comprehension," Reading and Inquiry, 10 (1965), 59-64.

Reviews other writers' ideas of comprehension and proposes a model to explain the intellectual processes involved in comprehension.

130. Courtney, Brother Leonard, F.S.C. "Study Skills Needed in the English Classroom," Reading and Inquiry, 10 (1965), 98-102.

Lists basic principles of common study skills, and discusses practical points for the teacher in emphasizing skill areas.

131. Deighton, Lee C. "Experience and Vocabulary Development," Reading and Inquiry, 10 (1965), 56-57.

Emphasizes increasing word power through direct experience or contextual setting.

132. Devine, Thomas G. "Listening: The Neglected Dimension of the Reading Program," Improvement of Reading Through Classroom Practice, 9 (1964), 119-120.

Shows that instruction in listening skills reinforces instruction in reading skills.

133. Gordon, Lillian G. "Promoting Critical Thinking," Reading and Inquiry, 10 (1965), 119-121.

Stresses the importance of a language-oriented reading program and total school involvement in the process of critical thinking.

134. James, Sister Mary. "Helping Junior High School Students Get to the Heart of Their Reading Matter," Improvement of Reading Through Classroom Practice, 9 (1964), 79-80.

Lists and explains four general factors to help students gain a total and purposeful command of reading matter.

135. Kinder, Robert Farrar. "Teaching Reference Study Skills," Reading and Inquiry, 10 (1965), 96-98.

Discusses skills of location, evaluation, organization, and usage.

136. Robinson, Helen M. "Perceptual and Conceptual Style Related to Reading," Improvement of Reading Through Classroom Practice, 9 (1964), 26-28.

Considers a number of studies investigating visual perception on primary level through college level.

137. Smith, Nila Banton. "Reading for Depth," Reading and Inquiry, 10 (1965), 117-119.

Categorizes and discusses the different meaning-getting processes of reading.

138. Spache, George D. "Clinical Assessment of Reading Skills," Reading and Inquiry, 10 (1965), 202-205.

Examines clinical evaluation of oral reading, silent reading, applied or study-type skills, and word analysis abilities.

V. MATERIALS

139. Bliesmer, Emery P. "Analysis of High School 'Basal Reading Materials': Preliminary Efforts," Improvement of Reading Through Classroom Practice, 9 (1964), 85-86.

Describes types of material presently available and expresses some tentative conclusions and comments.

140. Carrillo, Lawrence W. "Methods of Teaching Reading in the Junior High School," Challenge and Experiment in Reading, 7 (1962), 47-49.

Emphasizes the importance of using a combination of both basal readers and multi-level materials.

141. Culliton, Thomas E. Jr. "Effective Utilization of Basal Materials at the Junior High School Level," Improvement of Reading Through Classroom Practice, 9 (1964), 78-79.

Stresses thorough and continued diagnosis, careful evaluation, and a wide variety of materials in addition to the basal reader.

142. Drews, Elizabeth M. "The Development of New Media to Teach Creative and Critical Thinking," Vistas in Reading, 11, Part 1, (1966), 119-123.

Upholds the philosophy that one cannot teach critical thinking with conventional curriculum and textbooks as a base and discusses the importance of making one's own materials.

143. Groff, Patrick. "Materials Needed for Individualization," Reading and Inquiry, 10 (1965), 156-159.

Advocates the teaching of reading, using children's literature rather than programmed or basal materials.

VI. READING IN CONTENT AREAS

144. Bennett, E. Harold. "Multi-Level Reading of the Novel," Reading and Inquiry, 10 (1965), 76-79.

Discusses an experiment in developing inquiring minds through guided study of individually chosen novels. Plan includes interaction of both homogeneous and heterogeneous groups.

145. Brown, Charles M. "Reading Among the Language Arts," Improvement of Reading Through Classroom Practice, 9 (1964), 118-119.

Gives examples of approaches used in the study of how children learn.

146. Buehler, Rose Burgess. "Vocabulary Development in the Content Fields," Improvement of Reading Through Classroom Practice, 9 (1964), 37-38.

Values the use of cultural tools and visual aids in placing vocabulary words in a contextual setting.

147. Carlsen, G. Robert. "Adolescents and Literature in Three Dimensions," Changing Concepts of Reading Instruction, 6 (1961), 196-199.

Discusses three kinds of activities repeated with variation each year: individualized reading, reading in common, and thematic reading of literature.

148. Carlson, Ruth Kearney. "The Vitality of Literature," Reading and Inquiry, 10 (1965), 74-76.

Discusses variety, reading procedure, and appreciation levels of poetry.

149. Coulter, Myron L. "Changing Concepts of Reading Instruction in the Content Areas," Changing Concepts of Reading Instruction, 6 (1961), 35-38.

Argues that since reading a general reading text does not ensure reading adequately the specialized texts in content areas, reading instruction must take place in the content area.

150. Evertts, Eldonna L. "The Nebraska Curriculum: Literature, Linguistics, and Composition," Improvement of Reading Through Classroom Practice, 9 (1964), 227-229.

Defines the importance of a three-fold approach in the English program, including emphasis on literature, linguistics, and composition.

151. Hillocks, George J. "Language Studies and the Teaching of Literature," Improvement of Reading Through Classroom Practice, 9 (1964), 229-230.

Applies language theory and literary theory to teaching the reading of literature.

152. Newton, J. Roy. "Desirable Experiences Through Language Arts," Reading and Inquiry, 10 (1965), 54-56.

Emphasizes a variety of in-school experiences to develop specific reading readiness and advocates a fusion of reading and writing instruction.

153. Robinson, H. Alan. "Teaching Reading in the Content Fields: Some Basic Principles of Instruction," Improvement of Reading Through Classroom Practice, 9 (1964), 36.

Advocates teaching of reading and study skills for general improvement of learning in content areas.

154. Sipay, Edward R. "Selecting Suitable Material for the Literature Program," Improvement of Reading Through Classroom Practice, 9 (1964), 120-121.

Gives criteria for teacher selection and teacher-guided student selection of material.

155. Stewart, David K. "From the Complexity of Reading to the Clarity of Simple English," Improvement of Reading Through Classroom Practice, 9 (1964), 121-122.

Advocates a four strand skill approach built into every lesson plan, providing a sequential learning pattern ranging from kindergarten through high school.

156. Summers, Edward G. "Review of Recent Research in Reading in Content Subjects at the Junior High School Level," Improvement of Reading Through Classroom Practice, 9 (1964), 38-41.

Gives a summary of recent research and provides a reference list and brief description of pertinent studies.

157. Woestehoff, Ellsworth S. "Teaching Reading Skills Through Literature," Improvement of Reading Through Classroom Practice, 9 (1964), 36-37.

Applies a six-step reading skill approach to a chapter from a Mark Twain novel.

VII. DEVELOPING INTERESTS AND TASTES

158. Boutwell, William D. "Can Book Reading be Made a Habit?" Improvement of Reading Through Classroom Practice, 9 (1964), 180-182.

Presents five factors that deter the enjoyment of reading and suggests nine programs of action to make reading a habit.

159. Clark, Marie. "What We Read--and Why," Improvement of Reading Through Classroom Practice, 9 (1964), 184-185.

Stresses building personal, historical, and literary concepts by letting students read for enjoyment.

160. Gable, Martha A. "T.V. Lessons to Stimulate Interest in Reading," Improvement of Reading Through Classroom Practice, 9 (1964), 133-134.

Gives examples of several TV lessons and describes the team teaching relationship of the TV teacher and the classroom teacher.

161. Gunderson, Doris V. "Research in Reading Habits and Interests at the Junior High School Level," Improvement of Reading Through Classroom Practice, 9 (1964), 182-184.

Reports findings of several research studies.

162. Kinder, Robert Farrar. "Encouraging Personal Reading in Junior High School," Vistas in Reading, 11, Part 1, (1966), 417-419.

Poses the question of how to encourage junior high schoolers to read for enjoyment.

163. Robinson, Margaret A. "Developing Lifetime Reading Habits--A Continuous Process," Improvement of Reading Through Classroom Practice, 9 (1964), 179-180.

Traces reading from initial interest to development of permanent interest and literary taste.

VIII. LINGUISTICS AND THE TEACHING OF READING

164. Fries, Charles C. "Linguistics and Reading Problems at the Junior High School Level," Reading and Inquiry, 10 (1965), 244-247.

Contrasts the linguistic approach and the traditional approach in the teaching of reading.

165. O'Daly, Elizabeth C. "Linguistics and the Teaching of Junior High School Reading," Vistas in Reading, 11, Part 1, (1966), 330-334.

Discusses whether or not Linguistics has a place in the teaching of reading, concluding that an eclectic approach remains the best system in teaching elementary reading.

166. Shuy, Roger W. "Linguistic Principles Applied to the Teaching of Reading," Reading and Inquiry, 10 (1965), 242-244.

Discusses the principles of system, sounds, and society and their application to the junior high reading program.

IX. THE LIBRARY AND THE READING PROGRAM

167. Pitts, Anne W. "The Role of the Library in the Junior High School Reading Program," Improvement of Reading Through Classroom Practice, 9 (1964), 201-202.

Prefers that library skills relative to a specific subject be taught by the teacher rather than in an organized course in library instruction.

168. Weiss, M. Jerry. "The Role of the Library in the Junior High School Reading Program," Improvement of Reading Through Classroom Practice, 9 (1964), 200-201.

Offers ideas to support use of the library as the core of the reading program.

X. READING AND THE DISADVANTAGED

169. Brown, Judith. "A Rationale for the Teaching of Reading to Disadvantaged Children," Improvement of Reading Through Classroom Practice, 9 (1964), 168-169.

Discusses some positive factors of motivation for disadvantaged children and lists typical characteristics of their style of learning.

170. Cohen, S. Alan. "Factors of Format Relative to Comprehension or Mediocrity on East Houston Street," Reading and Inquiry, 10 (1965), 267-269.

Presents conclusions that have guided materials development at New York City's Mobilization for Youth Program.

171. Downing, Gertrude L. "Compensatory Reading Instruction for Disadvantaged Adolescents," Improvement of Reading Through Classroom Practice, 9 (1964), 167-168.

Describes the goals, procedures, and outcomes of the Queens College BRIDGE Project with disadvantaged students in New York City.

172. Gibbons, Marilyn. "Teaching Reading to the Disadvantaged--Junior High Mobilization for Youth Reading Program," Improvement of Reading Through Classroom Practice, 9 (1964), 165-166.

Describes an experimental program designed to attack juvenile delinquency through re-motivation to learning.

173. Nason, Harold M. "The Developmental Program Meets the Challenge of Potential School Dropouts," Reading and Inquiry, 10 (1965), 263-265.

Discusses the characteristics of disadvantaged children and lists some "musts" for their reading program.

XI. DIAGNOSIS AND TREATMENT OF READING DIFFICULTIES

174. Belden, Bernard R. "Organizing and Managing Remedial Reading in Classroom," Vistas in Reading, 11, Part 1, (1966), 252-254.

Defines the remedial reader, and offers suggestions for classroom and total curriculum organization and management.

175. Cohn, Stella M. "Organizing and Administering Public School Reading Clinics," Reading and Inquiry, 10 (1965), 224-226.

Describes in detail the clinical program of the Special Reading Services of New York City.

176. Feuers, Stelle. "Individualizing Instruction in the Reading Skills Class," Improvement of Reading Through Classroom Practice, 9 (1964), 98-99.

Describes the approach, technique, and organizational patterns of the remedial reading program in a Beverly Hills school district.

177. Jan-Tausch, James. "Classroom Application of Clinical Findings," Improvement of Reading Through Classroom Practice, 9 (1964), 148-149.

Stresses the necessity of translating clinical discoveries into classroom practicality and terminology.

178. Roswell, Florence G. "Improved Diagnostic Procedures in Reading at the Junior High School Level," Reading and Inquiry, 10 (1965), 180-181.

Discusses the three-fold purpose of diagnosis and cites case studies showing how schools might use existing diagnostic facilities.

179. Saine, Lynette. "General Principles Underlying Good Remedial Instruction," Improvement of Reading Through Classroom Practice, 9 (1964), 149-150.

Summarizes principles basic to the functioning of a program, rather than its instructional procedures.

180. Smith, Helen K. "Identification of Factors that Inhibit Progress in Reading," Reading and Inquiry, 10 (1965), 200-202.

Discusses methods of identifying specific factors related to reading retardation.

Part II

(1)

3. In Secondary Schools

a. Changing Concepts in Reading in Secondary Schools

HENRY A. BAMMAN

Until comparatively recent years the teaching of reading was considered the responsibility of primary teachers. That it is impossible to complete such instruction in the first three grades became evident as investigations were made into (1) the nature of the reading process and the developmental skills involved, (2) the skills lacking in students in the middle grades and junior and senior high schools, and (3) the course of child development. Taken together, the results of these studies showed that the primary child is too immature to acquire the most advanced types of skills and that certain skills must be introduced and mastered in the middle and upper grades, at the earliest. Over the past three decades schools have come to the general practice of teaching reading and study skills systematically as an integral part of the curriculum throughout the elementary school. Unless such instruction is provided, older pupils cannot handle the more difficult material and increasingly complex ideas with which they are expected to deal.

At about the beginning of World War II, educators noticed that many secondary students were unable to read their textbooks sufficiently well. This unfortunate situation was partially the result of the growing tendency of students to stay in school until they were sixteen or more and of the growing practice of promoting slow-learning students into high school, largely on the basis of chronological age. Nowadays practically every student continues into high school, for these reasons: there are laws establishing a minimum age for leaving school; employers increasingly demand that their employees have a high school diploma (supported strongly by labor unions, these same employers discourage young people from seeking jobs before they have finished high school training); and there is a general cultural acceptance of high school graduation as a minimal educational goal. Consequently, the present high school population is extremely heterogeneous as compared with the selective group which was enrolled in high school twenty-five years ago.

With the realization that many secondary students lack the reading skills requisite for preparing their lessons, the larger school systems began experimenting with continuous developmental reading experiences for students for the entire twelve-year period of the school curriculum. Denver, Philadelphia, New York, Los Angeles, and San Francisco, among others, began an appraisal of the reading of students in their systems. In the vast body of research which we have in the field of reading instruction, however, there is little to be found which is helpful to us in setting up a good reading program for the secondary school. Elizabeth Simpson, Ruth Strang, Margaret Early, Arno Jewett, Guy Bond, and Agnella Gunn have made outstanding contributions. The need for descriptions of workable programs, particularly in terms of reading in the content fields, and for reports of sound research in the total spectrum of skills for the secondary student is indeed paramount.

Heavy and widespread demands for efficient reading. Because the high school curriculum is exploratory, much reading is required. Every subject opens up a new world of knowledge and action through enlightening initial experiences, or at the very least it broadens already familiar fields through revealing entirely different perspectives from those seen in earlier school years. All these new curricular demands call for much reading in every subject. All secondary school teachers, therefore, have a definite responsibility for helping their students to read effectively and extensively in their respective content areas.

Some teachers of the academic subjects are inclined to think that only in their fields is it necessary for students to carry on an extensive reading program. Other teachers of the more technical subjects, or of subjects requiring a great deal of computation or manipulation of a mechanical nature, tend to feel that they have little or no responsibility for guiding their students' reading, since reading seems to be relatively unimportant in these technical subjects. Actually, the students' reading is important to learning in all subjects of the curriculum. It is obviously crucial in the social sciences and literature; but physics, chemistry, home economics, algebra, agriculture, and others require thoughtful reading, too. In order to understand the principles of electricity, students must read. Reading recipes and directions on dress patterns in home economics, reading specification sheets for building a desk or repairing an automobile in industrial arts, and reading problems and theorems in algebra and geometry call for genuine skill in word recognition, word meanings, comprehension, and critical thinking. The students' general competency in any of these subjects is dependent on their ability to read efficiently.

Teachers in the secondary school must feel a deep concern for any students who have high potential but read poorly. First of all, such students must be identified, their weaknesses discovered, and a remedial program laid out. The hardest task of all may be to interest these students in improving their own reading.

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Some measures of motivation are (1) revealing to a student his actual potential and the strong possibility for his improving in reading; (2) starting with some simple and practical measures that are likely to bring speedy improvement; (3) giving speed exercises on relatively simple materials and having the student keep a graph to show his gain in rate and comprehension; (4) providing materials commensurate, in level of difficulty and breadth of interests, with the student's needs. The point here is that it is important to involve the high-potential low-achiever in a reading program. It will pay high dividends.

Then there are those students who already read well but need guidance in acquiring the more advanced skills that high school and college courses call for. Here a truly developmental reading program is essential—one that builds on an elementary school curriculum that has adequately done its reading job to the extent that the students were mature and able enough to master the skills appropriate at the grade level.

One consideration that should constantly be kept in mind is: Of what lasting value will be the reading skills which are being taught? Students must acquire skill in recognizing words; deriving word meanings, comprehending sentences, paragraphs, and whole selections; selecting only the pertinent data; evaluating the authenticity of materials; and grasping the implied ideas that they are ready to continue to be effective readers in a world that abounds in reading materials that report staggering discoveries, discuss crucial social and political problems, contain suggestions that will improve professional and vocational skills and insights, and afford deep pleasure in reading best sellers and less popular materials of quality.

The modern citizen must of necessity turn to reading materials to maintain his perspective on the changing scene. In like manner, a critical reader must be able to choose from among the thousands of titles published each year those books and periodicals that satisfy his values and needs. Good readers will choose to read a particular book not because it is a current fad, but because it contains authentic information or depicts people and places accurately and artistically. Discrimination and judgment in the choice of books mark the mature reader; it is such qualities that high school teachers should cultivate in their best students.

Organizing for action. Who is to be responsible for the teaching of reading in the secondary school? The answer, obviously, is: every teacher who is responsible for the teaching of language in any form. We are on the threshold of exciting change in the reorganization of the high school for more effective and efficient instruction; evidence of this is to be found in the enthusiasm which has been expressed, nationwide, for the "Trump Plan," which envisions teamwork among all teachers and, most noteworthy, the recognition of truly masterful teachers, who will serve not only as teachers of large groups of students but also as mentors for the young and inexperienced teachers. Within the framework of this plan, one can see possibilities of organizing for meeting the problems in reading in the secondary school.

Reading instruction *is* the responsibility of each teacher, despite the fact that few secondary teachers are trained to teach reading as a skill in their particular subject areas; however, the response that we cannot act because we have so few trained reading specialists for the secondary school is one which cannot be sanctioned by professional people. Let's consider what *can* be done.

First, all personnel — administrators, supervisors, counselors, teachers, and subject-matter specialists—must be involved in considering the reading program. Consideration must be given, by the entire staff of the school, to the scope and sequence of reading skills. Here the aid of an experienced elementary teacher or a reading specialist is indicated. Which of the skills are common to all content fields? Which, particularly, fall within the province of the individual subject or department? Which skills appear to be neglected by most of the teachers?

Second, a decision must be reached as to a responsible person in each content area, a person who will lead the group of teachers to a study of the research which exists in terms of skills which are pertinent to the particular subject. As a group, these teachers can plan a sequence of skills which are to be taught by each teacher in his own subject.

Third, if the skills which are common to all content fields have been clearly identified, who will assume responsibility for teaching those skills? Traditionally, the English teacher has borne the burden; it should be pointed out, however, that seldom is the teacher of English equipped to teach reading skills other than those which apply to her own emphases of literature and composition. On the other hand, common skills of word recognition, vocabulary, comprehension, and critical thinking could probably be made a part of the English curriculum, based on a clearly stated scope and sequence of skills which would identify the year and the subject in which emphasis is to be given to all students who study English.

Fourth, a sound program of evaluation is needed. Literally hundreds of thousands of dollars are spent each year on testing programs in our high schools; yet, we see so little evidence of evaluation techniques which explicitly identify students who are in need of help in particular reading skills. Results of standardized tests must be studied carefully and interpreted to all of the teachers who are concerned with the education of a particular student; furthermore, careful diagnosis of particular weaknesses and strengths must be made before a program is planned to help that student and others who have similar reading needs.

Fifth, at least three types of reading programs must be considered, if the needs of *all* students are to be met: (1) a remedial program for those students who are marginal in their capacity to learn and who have crippling emotional or social problems which prevent them from learning; (2) a corrective program for the student of average or above ability, who is relatively free of personal problems, but who is not achieving at a level commensurate with his ability and grade-placement; and (3) a developmental program for those superior students who are reading well enough to achieve average grades, but who need extension of their skills if they are to realize their potential. The remedial program requires the services of a reading specialist, one who has a deep understanding of developmental and remedial techniques and who is experienced in handling the disturbed and reluctant student. The corrective and developmental programs are the responsibilities of classroom teachers, with assistance from the reading specialist; through inservice training, special colleges courses, or pooling of their own teaching experiences, these teachers may learn to give instruction in reading skills for their own particular subjects.

Sixth, materials of a broad range of interests and difficulty must be available to every teacher. Never before, in the history of education, have we had so many wonderful materials, adapted to all interests and abilities, as we have today. The concept of the single textbook for a class in the secondary school has yielded to multi-level texts and reference materials which give every student an opportunity to participate in classroom activities. Indispensable in planning materials for each of the content areas is the good librarian, who should be a key person in any reading program.

Finally, a beginning must be made, modest though it may be. If each teacher of a content area were to assume responsibility for teaching one particular skill, a worthwhile step has been taken. The tendency in the past has been to set up a "reading class" to which problem students could be referred. Too often, these classes have been gadget-centered, conducted by a teacher who has not been enthusiastic about his assignment; such programs are to be found in high schools throughout the nation. They have not, and they cannot, meet the needs. Nothing can be substituted for the classroom teacher, the subject specialist, who regards the teaching of reading and study skills as an integral part of the learning situation.

It is truly encouraging to note how much time, thought, and energy many secondary teachers are devoting to setting up programs to improve the reading of their students. The typical high school teacher understands how heterogeneous the high school population has come to be, why it has become so, and why he has responsibility for meeting the needs and interests of the students as they come to

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him for instruction. Any conscientious teacher stands ready to make all necessary adaptations so that he can provide adequate learning experiences for all youth, regardless of how widely divergent their interests and abilities may be.

How wisely and constructively the teacher has dealt with his students will become evident in future years as they assume their adult responsibilities as workers, heads of families, and citizens who may or may not be inclined and able to read with understanding and critical judgment about the conditions and problems that are confronting them at the time. This is the challenge to the teachers in our secondary schools. How well will we meet it?

(2)

6. Secondary Reading Programs

a. Unsolved Problems in Secondary Reading

GUY L. BOND

The problems in the developmental reading program at the secondary level are rapidly being solved. However, there still are many problems which need study if the secondary reading program is to provide for the continued reading growth of all the students. These problems can be grouped under the following headings: (1) problems related to instruction outcomes; (2) problems related to differences in reading maturity among students; and (3) problems related to responsibility for the secondary reading program. I have chosen to discuss the first two headings with you since the third will be discussed by Dr. Simpson in the paper which follows.

Problems Related to Instructional Outcomes

In describing the capabilities of one of his characters, Boris Pasternak in *Dr. Zhivago* said, "How well she does everything! She reads not as if reading were the highest human activity, but as if it were the simplest possible thing, a thing that even animals could do, as if she were carrying water from a well, or peeling potatoes." While it is true that much in reading must become almost automatic, and it must be done with seemingly little effort, many reading situations demand much more of the reader. Not all reading can be done as simply as carrying water from a well. The mature reader must be able to read studiously, reflecting with an author or debating with the ideas he presents. Critical, evaluative reading is not simply done. Reading the materials of science or mathematics is rarely as easy as peeling potatoes.

Many of the problems in secondary reading which need further study stem from the interrelationships between the automatic and the reflective aspects of the reading act. Research on reading instruction at the high school level might well focus upon the following problem areas:

1. *Word recognition* in high school reading instruction constitutes one of the important problems that needs further study. Instruction in word recognition at the high school level should give emphasis to the more mature and rapid word recognition techniques, such as structural analysis of words. These methods of analyzing words which not only aid in identifying words, but also aid in giving clues to the meanings of words should be taught. Experience with prefixes and suffixes and the ways in which these elements alter the meaning of root words should be given. The students should be taught to notice authors' definitions of words as aids to word recognition and vocabulary development. The use of context clues as a means of appraising semantic variations of words needs emphasis. The word-study techniques developed at the high school level should be those that make for rapid recognition of words and also for more precise, vivid, and extensive meanings of words. These techniques are of such importance in maintaining growth in reading that their development should be continually studied.

2. *Comprehension abilities* encompass many problems for high school teachers. Instruction here should be concerned with developing the abilities needed to understand more than the literal statement of the author. The student should be taught to read between and beyond the lines of print. Such areas of comprehension, as: the ability to organize systematically; to interpret realistically; to evaluate critically; and to appreciate aesthetically what is read should be emphasized.

In order to solve the problems of comprehension, the program of basic instruction should use materials in which the reading experiences are carefully selected to afford the teacher an opportunity to teach these abilities in realistic content. Obviously a teacher cannot teach the student how to generalize from interrelated facts if no interrelated facts are presented. So it is also with all the other comprehension abilities.

3. *Differentiating reading in the content fields* involves many instructional problems that need to be solved. While it is true that there is much that is common in reading the materials of the

various curricular fields, there is also much that is specific to each field. Shores, Tinker, Fay, and Bond, for example, have found that reading proficiency is, to a considerable extent, specific to the content field in which the reading is done. A glance at reading materials that are used in the various curricular fields of the high school will attest to the validity of these studies. There are vast differences in the demands placed upon the reader. We do not have time to discuss all of the problems involved, but the following are among the major ones: ✓

The rate of reading that is desirable and effective for reading most narrative material is not suitable for reading mathematical problems. The rate suitable for most science material would be inefficient in reading a humorous tale. High school students must learn to become fluent readers who can read rapidly when such speed is warranted. They also need to be taught when to read slowly and carefully, when to reread, when to pause and reflect, when to take notes as they read, and when to read rapidly. Such training must be given in content that demands such reading. The developmental reading program should make contrasts between suitable rate adjustments in the various fields.

Vocabulary problems are immediately apparent in each of the content fields. The vocabulary load of new or specialized meanings of words the high school student must learn becomes terrifically large. There is no doubt that much of the technical vocabulary is necessary. It is necessary for exactness and clarity of expression. It is also necessary for compactness. Frequently a technical term, such as photosynthesis, for example, represents many pages of discussion for which the term becomes the symbol. It would be unfortunate indeed if the student had to reread all of the discussion on photosynthesis every time the generalizations inherent in the discussion of photosynthesis are needed. Instead, the term symbolizes the whole presentation.

The avoidance of specialized vocabulary is not only unwise, it is impossible. We should, however, question ourselves rather carefully about how much specialized vocabulary the high school student can reasonably be expected to assimilate. Probably there should be no more technical or specialized words introduced than the number that can become permanent learnings and no fewer words than are needed to identify all of the basic concepts with exactness. The teacher should inspect the material and develop, for the students, clarity of understanding of unusual words.

✓ *Organization problems* are among the most difficult the high school student meets in reading content materials. If his reading program has not anticipated these problems and systematically built readiness for the complex situation, the student may well find himself in reading confusion. All the fields have their special problems of organization, and the student must be given systematic instruction in sensing the organization of the material. This instruction warrants systematic treatment in a developmental reading program, and we must study ways in which to overcome the many instructional problems involved.

✓ *Symbols and abbreviations* specific to a curricular field constitute other hazards to the high school student's success in reading. Among the more important basic study skills found in science, for example, is the ability to interpret the symbolic language and the abbreviations. The symbol *Zn* is more than an abbreviation for zinc. It may imply that the student knows the atomic weight, the valence, and so forth; that he is able to use the symbol effectively in chemical formulae.

All the other fields have symbols that must be learned if confusions are to be avoided. The basic reading program must build an understanding of the importance of noting symbols and abbreviations and of learning their meanings. The greatest part of the learning will come from careful guidance in each specific curricular field in which the symbols and abbreviations are met.

Basic reading instruction should be continued through the high school years. I believe that either the language arts teachers or special teachers of reading are the best equipped to give this instruction. If the problems related to instructional outcomes are to be solved, we may need to reorganize the high school so that these teachers have the students for a larger block of time than is now usual. Providing basic instruction in reading, so necessary in maintaining reading growth in the high school, is a difficult and complex task. We should try various approaches experimentally to find out the best way to handle the many problems involved.

Problems Related to Adjusting to Differences in Reading Abilities

The adjustment of materials and methods to meet individual differences in reading abilities is probably the most difficult problem the teacher faces. It is a problem that has confronted us from the time we started to educate all of the children. It is a problem that is still somewhat unsolved. We have, throughout the years, been constantly improving in the ways that we have tried to meet the fact that students will and must grow in reading at different rates and in different ways. We have tried rigorous policies of retardation and acceleration as a means of meeting different rates of growth in reading. We have rejected this approach. In one country I visited when I studied how reading was taught in other English-speaking countries, I found that they had a rigorous promotional policy. The promotional policy was such that in a third-grade class, I saw seven-year-olds and fourteen-year-olds. That situation defied the fact that children are growing in many ways other than in reading.

We have attempted to differentiate assignments and to differentiate expected outcomes from students who are reading the same material as a means of adjustment. The less mature readers read to find specific answers, while the more mature readers read to critically evaluate or to interpret more fully the materials they are reading. We have found that this approach does not fully answer the problem. Differentiated assignments may help to answer the problem when coupled with other methods of adjusting reading instruction to the range of reading ability found within a class.

We have tried ability grouping, assigning children to classes so that they will have more similar reading capabilities than does a typical class. We must consider upon what basis we will make that decision as to which students will be grouped together. There is no question that ability grouping will lower the range of talent with which we have to work. I do not believe that this approach is as bad as some would have us believe it to be, but I don't think it will do all that other people claim. In other words, I believe that after we get the students grouped, we still have the problem of adjusting the instruction to their needs. This is true with any organizational scheme or administrative device for answering the problem.

We have tried fixed groupings within the class. Under this approach, the less mature students do not profit from the enrichment given by the capable readers. In fact, although we have said that we put students together so that they can learn to work together, we have dramatically separated them within the class. We have tried to get around this fault by having them work together in many of their activities, not associated with the reading program, throughout the day and we've done a pretty good job of that.

Recently we have been using what we call multiple-flexible groupings, that is, groupings wherein we have basic reading instruction given in three or more groups. Then, we have interest groups expanding the topic that the middle group is studying. In this related reading about a topic, the students read individual selections and then share their ideas. When the teacher detects that some students have like problems with regard to reading skills and abilities, he takes these students aside and works with them as a corrective or remedial group while the rest are working somewhat independently.

We have been working toward more adaptable programs. We have tried many, many ways of arranging reading instruction so that the students can work together and still have their programs adjusted to their reading capabilities. Many high schools have found that a moderate amount of ability grouping for reading instruction has helped to make classes somewhat more homogeneous. Many teachers have found that even in these classes, some form of flexible grouping within the class, coupled with extensive guided and individualized reading instruction is necessary.

I have presented many problems that high school reading programs must solve if the students are to achieve the reading maturity we wish them to establish during the high school years. I think that in all of our approaches in trying to handle these problems we should encourage experimentation. I think that teachers who try new approaches are the ones who are going to learn to be better teachers of reading, and I know the whole profession will gain stature and capability by trying out new and different ways of handling these basic problems.

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C. SECONDARY LEVEL

1. Innovations in High School Reading Instruction

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IN OUR AMERICAN democracy the slogan "Free education for all the children of all the people" applies to all who are capable even to a limited extent of profiting from educational services. In every group of high school pupils there are varying degrees of differences in physical, social, intellectual, and emotional growth; individual behavior shapes itself within the social, psychological, economic, and cultural setting which is the environment of the pupil.

Individuality of growth in reading development has long been recognized, and the modern education program in reading instruction considers all aspects of pupil interests, needs, and abilities. A major requirement for learning, consequently, is the establishment of a high school climate in which each pupil can feel secure and wanted, in which he can express his thinking and feeling, develop a sense of personal worth, live and work with others, become motivated with a sense of achievement, and make continuous growth in his purposeful reading. To achieve this goal, the commitment of the entire staff and faculty to the improvement of reading in all content areas is essential.

Innovations in high school reading instruction include expanded library resources which are important to the curriculum of learning. They also include the work of content area teachers and librarians in a cooperative team-teaching organization, and include the work of the reading specialists to provide the faculty and staff with in-service understanding of the total reading process, and extend guidance to all students to promote continuous, meaningful reading.

Expanded Library Facilities

The resource materials in the expanded concept of the library make the library in a literal sense "the heart of the school;" and the modern high school is itself a library with resources available to the students and teachers. Innovations appropriate for learning "in these times" include experiences in observation, exploration, experimentation, reading, and discussion, with the use of multi-media aids for sensory experiencing such as tape recorders and tapes, individual film strip viewers, motion pictures, film strips, slides, and film strip projectors, microfilm readers, typewriters for student use, record players and records, collections of musical scores, collections of art objects and science exhibits, globes, maps, and art reproductions. In some libraries an annex includes the audio-visual center as a separate unit.

A wealth of books, periodicals, pamphlets, school catalogs, newspapers, and paperbacks selected by content area teachers in cooperation with the librarians as an in-service project encouraged faculty involvement in the use of the functional library and provided multi-level reading materials for a wide range of reading abilities. A sale of paperbacks provided the opportunity for the development of individual libraries. All of these materials were cataloged and organized to facilitate their independent use by students. Guidance and instruction in their use and services were provided by professional librarians and student assistants.

In addition to the main library reading rooms, innovations in library design pro-

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vide, by means of sliding wall partitions and folding walls, spaces for large and small areas for group work, conferences, and study. Students engaged in independent study projects and learning projects are provided the use of individual carrels, library tables with dividers creating areas for semi-private study or reading, and larger tables providing space for working with materials. Students will use such new equipment as microfilm readers, the rear screen film projector, and overhead projectors. Listening "systems" consisting of listening posts and earphones allow small groups of individuals to listen to recordings without disturbing the rest of the group.

Under the guidance of the library specialists in some high schools, students were given orientation lessons in the use of the library resources and a ***Student's Library Handbook*** was compiled as a reference tool. It included the floor plan of the library and presented the library as the study center of the school. The student was introduced to facilities and materials, location of resources by sample catalog cards, the circulation rules of the library, and explanations concerning methods of checking out reference books and reserve collections. In addition, suggestions were given concerning the use of periodical guides for research reports and references for independent study. Recommendations were made to the student to use the skills and information gained in using other libraries.

Reading Programs

Innovations for more effective study skills in another large county system made provision for an orientation course for all entering freshmen at all levels of achievement for one class hour a day for a period of eight weeks. The teacher of English and the reading specialist supervised the work in the Reading-Study-Skills Laboratory. The reading specialist demonstrated the use of the equipment and materials in the laboratory. Diagnostic techniques, developmental reading instruction, and remedial reading methods were indicated as measures to help individualize the work and to help the student to be a better reader. Materials could be checked out and used in the classroom later in the year under the supervision of the teacher. The reading specialist took charge of the lower achievers, while the teacher worked with the rest of the group. One of the most satisfying outcomes of the orientation program, reported by the teachers, was that the students were given guidance in reading to achieve the goal of independent reading.

The Student Handbook Syllabus which was given to the students at the beginning of the orientation course indicated the purpose of the eight-week course in reading for which credit would be given. Major motivations were to increase vocabulary, to comprehend more effectively, and to improve study habits. How to plan, how to improve speaking, reading, and spelling vocabularies, how to take notes, how to outline, and how to take a test were some of the skills outlined in the handbook. The importance of independence in learning and keeping records of progress was stressed. This pertinent statement was included in the handbook, "It's up to you! Let's see what you can do!"

In another new reading program designed for all high school students, the purpose was to concentrate on vocabulary, comprehension, and study skills in all content areas. In study skills, students considered how to make the best use of time and how to most effectively approach various textbooks and teacher assignments. Those students who are weak in some subject areas may work individually and receive special tutoring to help each one become as competent as possible in approaching reading and study assignments independently. The reading guidance was scheduled during a study hall or homeroom period. The length of time was flexible, although some students remained in the reading center for a semester or more. Students moved at their own pace and dismissal was determined on the basis of progress.

In a large city system the head of the English Department observed the work in the reading center and learned the methods of instruction. He then provided released time for members of the department to enable them to observe and study with the reading specialist and incorporate in their teaching the skills essential to functional reading in the English units.

In other high school programs, the assumption that homework is a necessary and desirable activity for *all* students was eliminated in favor of the use of the library as a resource center for individual guidance and independent study at school. Provision for the use of the wealth of ideas and materials during the "self-contained school day" was included in the after school study time under the guidance and supervision of individualized consultant services. The extended school day was designed to stimulate inquiry, contribute to independent learning projects, offer corrective and remedial reading aids, and to some extent substitute for home study where the resources may be limited or non-existent.

Reading Specialists

The writer observed the trend to include reading specialists on more high school staffs to provide services to the faculty and students through varied in-service activities. These involved demonstrations, at the request of the teachers, to improve reading in the content areas, reading workshops, talks to classes on study skills for retention of information and vocabulary development, total faculty and staff involvement in the developmental reading program, evaluating the reading program and interpreting the achievement tests, individual guidance to students in independent learning projects, and team teaching with the librarian and other members of the faculty.

Other titles given to identify the work of the reading specialist were reading coordinator, remedial reading teacher, developmental reading teacher, reading improvement teacher, and reading consultant. The areas in which they worked were named reading clinics (for diagnosis, correction, and remediation of reading difficulties), reading centers, educational centers, reading laboratories, and reading-study-skills centers which were developed in conjunction with the library resource materials.

Conclusion

There seems to be no more democratic way to provide for the development of every individual pupil than by making learning activities continuous, meaningful experiences in *living* which are within the pupil's power of realization and which at the same time encourage his wholesome growth as a useful member of society. This is the method by which the total school program meets its objective of contributing to the education of "all the children of all the people."

C. SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL

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1. Implications of Class Organization for Reading Instruction

LEO FAY

A STRANGE new jargon has invaded the secondary school under the guise of casting the image of the future. The ungraded high school, team teaching, automated programed instruction and computer-based conflict-free modular scheduling, are but a limited sample of the terms attached to innovations that promise to revolutionize secondary education. Underlying this dramatic change is a better understanding of the talents of our youth, sharper definitions of objectives, and a rapidly expanding body of subject matter. All three have affected organization of classrooms and instruction.

John Flanagan's[1] recent summary of the project TALENT survey provides basic information to better understand the recent challenges to our traditional patterns of class organization. He reports that 25 to 30 per cent of ninth-grade students already know more about many educational subjects than the average twelfth grader. Furthermore, the top 5 per cent of students can learn many basic items at twice the rate of the average student. On the other hand students in vocational schools make but little progress in the tool subjects of reading, writing, and mathematics from the ninth to the twelfth grades. These facts and the many others that Flanagan reports, leads him to conclude that the present organization of the secondary school "is not at all well suited to meet the educational needs of the individual student."

Characteristics of the New Approaches

Facts such as these have lead to experiments utilizing team teaching, flexible scheduling, and the breaking of grade lines. Several experimental plans involving English programs have been described in recent issues of *The English Journal.* While there is marked variation from place to place the new organization plans have several characteristics in common:

1. Instruction in an area is planned and executed by two or more teachers working together.

2. The size of the instructional group varies in relation to the nature of the course and the needs of the students. For example, independent study activities may be provided for 1 to 4 students, small group instruction for 7 to 15, large group instruction for 50 or more students. With such an organization the basic concepts of a course may be presented to a large group; underlying meanings, implications and applications can be thoroughly discussed in small groups; independent study can be encouraged, and remedial instruction provided where needed.

3. The class periods are scheduled on a flexible basis. One school system builds its schedule around 15 time modules of 27 minutes each. Thus the duration of a class, like its size, can be determined by what is to be done. Lecture periods may be short while individual study and laboratory periods can be scheduled to provide adequate time to really accomplish something.

4. To maximize the use of the teachers' time and talents extensive use is made of the mass media such as educational TV and automated instruction, such as instructional laboratories, teaching machines, and programed materials.

5. As a result of the above characteristics the teacher is better able to see and guide the individual student as an individual.

6. The rigid lockstep of the traditional organization is broken by differentiating instruction and in some places dropping all grade designations, thus making it possible for students to select from a far wider range of subject matter at any time they are ready for it.

Implications for Reading Instruction

These dramatic developments have several implications for instruction in reading.

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[1] John C. Flanagan. "The Implications of Recent Research for the Improvement of Secondary Education," *American Educational Research Journal,* Vol. 1, January, 1964, pp. 1-9.

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1. A laboratory for skill development in reading and the other language arts is needed to provide individualized instruction in all of the communication skills. For reading, the laboratory would be concerned with:

- —the development of higher levels of efficiency in the basic skills of silent and oral reading.
- —the presentation and refinement of study skills.
- —the relationship between reading skills and the other language skills.
- —diagnostic and corrective services for disabled readers.

2. Teachers in the various subjects, as they direct the learning and research activities of their students will need to provide guidance in the selection and use of reading materials and in the organization of thinking appropriate to their subject matter. This is essential if a high level of literacy is to be accomplished in the subject matter areas.

3. Provisions must be made for the student to assume more responsibility for his own learning. Not all instruction can be provided directly by the teacher. Hence new types of instructional materials are needed that can be selected for an individual student on the basis of his specific needs and which he can use at a rate to provide optimum learning for himself. Many of the specifics in basic reading skills, the utilization of materials, study skills, and the reading of different kinds of content can be programed into self-teaching materials.

4. A program geared to challenge today's senior high school students at all levels of abilities demands reading resources that make typical library standards obsolete. Periodical, book and learning materials collections will need to provide a scope and depth of content far beyond what was considered satisfactory for many college libraries a decade ago.

5. The opportunities for the creative use of skills that the new plans provide should result in a significant increase in achievement which in turn will have further implications for the reading teacher.

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D. SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL LEVEL

1. Programing Instruction to Meet Individual Differences

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As EDUCATORS we cannot help being excited by the rapid development of educational methods and instrumentation with their promise for improving learning. The onslaught of new ideas and new / devices—automated teaching machines, televised teaching beamed over several states, audiovisumatic systems, computers adapted to self-instruction, telemation, and so on—brings at once the hope that these new techniques and devices will enhance learning and the fear that they will detract from it.

Educators cannot afford the waste involved in being partisan to the camps that have developed—those who would introduce these new developments wholesale into the curriculum without proper 1 cautions as opposed to those who take the no-nonsense view that use of such developments will lead us down an Orwellian path from which there is no return.

In this brief paper, an attempt is made to offer a rationale for the position that the educators' basic task is to seek to use these new ideas and techniques flexibly—to use them in those situations where they can more efficiently and effectively help us to achieve our professional goals.

Establishing Some Basic Definitions and Points of View

Senders' *(1)* definition of a teaching machine properly focuses this professional responsibility on the teacher: ". . . the only true teaching machine is an adaptive (learning) device; such a device is a teacher, rather than merely a communicative channel for a teacher." Teachers trained in the preparation, use, and evaluation of programed materials necessarily focus on those matters that are central to the teaching act—an analysis of the desired behavior changes and the most beneficial modes of effecting those changes.

Programed Instruction. Pipe *(2)* usefully defines programed instruction in terms of four characteristics:

1. *Small steps.* The material to be learned is presented in "optimally sized increments." (That last phrase avoids the question of how big is "small".)
2. *Active participation.* The student is continually being made to interact with the program.
3. *Immediate knowledge of results.* As soon as a student has made a response, he discovers whether his response was appropriate.
4. *Self-pacing.* Each student has his own copy of the program. His rate of progress is determined by the speed at which he works his way through the program.

These characteristics force us to state our objectives in specific behavioral terms and to recognize the different learning styles of our students. The teacher who programs instruction by utilizing these characteristics or principles is forced to a basic orientation toward the student. If the program does not produce the desired changes in student behavior, the onus is on the program and the program is revised until it works. Such familiar alibis as "The student is stupid," or "He is not paying attention" are not possible. Classroom research on the programing of instruction will hopefully be centered on the *significant interactions* in entire teaching systems—teachers, devices, subject matter, and students. Research so centered will personalize the teaching act rather than depersonalize it as so many opponents of the new technologies maintain.

Quintillian asked two thousand years ago that the individual not be neglected, that he be questioned and encouraged to strive for victory (so arranged that he gains it), in this way drawing forth his powers through praise and reward. Judicious use of programed instruction should aid us in this task.

In essence, programing refers to the arrangement of materials to be learned, and it goes without saying that good educational design demands an order of presentation that will be effective in promoting learning. This concept is not new. Educators have always tried to present material in effective ways—from easy material to more difficult, in logically ordered sequences, from general to specific etc., and always with repetition and review of special points. However, the new technologies have forced us to give systematic attention to these essential matters.

Unfortunately most textbook treatment of programed instruction is limited to discussion of linear and branching techniques and ignores a very different view called adjunctive programing.

Linear Programs

Briefly, in linear programing the material is broken up into small units and presented in successive *frames.* After answering the first question or filling in one or more blank spaces in a statement, the learner turns to the next frame where he gets a check answer and the next unit and questions. This process is repeated to the end of the program. There is no provision for varying the sequence except to repeat a set of frames before proceeding to the next set. The characteristics of linear programing are the step-by-step procedure, the active constructed response required of the learner, the prompt reinforcement of every response provided by the check answer, the self-pacing permitted the learner, and the built-in assurance of successful response.

Branching Programs

Branching refers to several methods of varying the presentation of items in a program. Crowder's *(3)* technique is to introduce alternative sequences according to the response made by the learner. An error leads to more information and corrective procedures. Another type of branching involves choice of alternative subsets of items at key points in a program. For example, a set of questions might be introduced to determine whether or not the learner has attained mastery of a principle. If he answers the questions correctly, he is allowed to proceed to the next unit; but if he runs into difficulty he is given more material dealing with the same principle. The term branching is also applied to a technique that involves no more than skipping over a number of items. If a learner answers a certain key item correctly, he is allowed to skip over a certain number of subsequent items.

Adjunctive Programs

Adjunctive programing is a term used by Pressey *(4)* and others who believe that self-instruction should be an adjunct to teaching rather than the main medium. Pressey's view is that the *initial* presentation of most types of instructional material should not be in bits and pieces but in a larger, meaningful whole. Most often this would be by textbook, but it might, for example, be by field trip, demonstration, or experiment. After the first presentation has given the learner a chance to "move about freely in the material" and to grasp its larger structure, self-instruction might very well be used to enhance the clarity and stability of the subject matter. Used in this way, a self-instructional program "will deal only with issues which need further clarification or emphasis. Such adjunct autoelucidation will *not* cover everything, may jump from one point to another or even back and forth."

Selecting items for such an adjunctive program would involve a determination of those points in any subject matter that cause the most difficulty for learners. The order of the presentation of the items would not be particularly important, for the structure of the subject matter is presented in other ways. The initial error rate is not of crucial importance either, for the student is expected to correct his own mistakes. In Pressey's opinion, the items should usually be presented as multiple-choice questions with one notably clear right answer and "only such wrong alternatives as express common misunderstandings."

It is this last view of programed instruction which seems to hold the greatest promise for those of us who teach the humanities where there are no absolutely certain answers but only a set of possible alternatives to be judged according to their special merits.

Research on Programing Instruction for Individual Differences

In reviewing the research on programed instruction, Smith and Smith *(5)* reported that programs have been used to teach students at all ability and grade levels. The considerable body of research seems to justify the conclusion that programed instruction techniques can be used effectively at all grade and ability levels with some indications that the techniques are more effective with school children than with college students. They conclude that the relative advantages of programed instruction for different ability levels depend on such other factors as type of subject matter and type and difficulty of programs.

Stolurow *(6)* concluded from his own research and other relevant research findings that within limits it is possible to compensate for intellectual differences by designing optimal programs. The phrase to note here is *within limits.* If we are striving to teach limited criterion behavior within the capabilities of all the learners in a group, then a carefully sequenced linear program self-paced by each individual learner may do the job. On the other hand, if we are interested in stimulating each learner to realize his fullest potential, such a program would only be a first step, and possibly a boring first step. Even so, we would expect the bright students to learn more than the dull whether or not differences appeared in achievement scores. Along with the assertions that appear in the literature to the effect that good programs "permit the quick and the slow to attain fairly comparable levels of mastery" *(7)* are other observations that the real learning achievement of bright and dull students is not always measured adequately by the post-tests used in programing research. Self-instruction may mask certain differences among learners, but it does not actually eliminate the differences as the wording of some research might seem to suggest. Various researchers emphasize that care must be taken to avoid bringing brighter students down to the level of programs that can be mastered by the slower students.

From a comprehensive review of the research on programing for self-instruction, Smith and Smith conclude that although complete-course programs are useful for some subjects and for some special teaching and training needs, adjunctive programs appear to be more appropriate for general school needs.

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4. Solving Vocational and Personal Problems Through Reading

MARGARET G. GREEN

COURSES in reading were not offered in the high schools in Volusia County, Florida, several years ago. Due to the demand for reading services, the Daytona Beach Junior College offered an eight weeks' summer session. The program is best described by the terms developmental, corrective, and remedial reading. Our program evolved over a period of several years.

A reading program must be so designed as to provide assistance to individuals in the achievement of their developmental tasks of life if they are to be well prepared to meet the challenge of the aerospace venture. As we considered the developemental tasks in planning our program in 1963, we involved some of the provisions of a developmental reading program as cited by Margaret Early, quoted by Spache.[1]

How could we assist this heterogenous group, reading levels ranging from fourth grade to fourteenth grade, to find the keys to meet their needs?

Solving Vocational and Personal Problems Through Reading was chosen for the theme because of the "I" appeal. It was developed from these viewpoints:

I. Guidance—Personal and Vocational

A. **Diagnosed difficulties in reading, study skills, and library skills as well as the potential to achieve; questionnaires and projection techniques were used to determine attitudes and interests toward reading and learning. Test results, personal and vocational goals were discussed and explored in the first counseling session.**

B. **Personal letters to the instructor were written weekly and showed improvement and change in attitudes, interests, and philosophy.[2]**

C. **Motivated and stimulated students by presenting framework for self-actualization:**

1. **concepts of positive thinking**
2. **concepts of success**
3. **concepts of self-discipline**
4. **concepts of goals[3]**

II. Speaking

A. **Discussed books as related to the areas of vocational and personal problems and to the self-actualizing concepts through (1) panel discussions, (2) group discussions, (3) individual discussions. (Books chosen through the Reading Guidance phase of the program.)**

III. Writing

A. **Personal letter writing to the teacher.**

B. **Investigative thesis paper coordinated the skills of reading and writing to assist the student in planning steps to solve his problems.**

IV. Reading Study and Library Skills

(Developed according to the needs of the student)

A. **Reading for information.**

B. **Locational skills.**

C. **Organizational skills.**

D. **Study skills.**

E. **Critical reading.**

F. **Interpretive and creative reading.**

G. **Reading in the content areas.[4]**

V. Reading Guidance[5]

A. **Interests, vocational and personal problems studied and bibliography prepared to suggest interesting books to help students solve problems.**

1. **Superior students prepared their own bibliographies.**
2. **Some read many books by same author.**
3. **Superior students guided into creative and critical reading; reluctant and retarded reader guided from elementary level of reading and thinking to a more advanced level.**

B. **"I" approach launched with the reading of biography.**

1. **Biography assumed to have a more powerful and potential influence on the attitude and behavior of its readers.**
2. ***Reading Ladders for Human Relations,*[6] *Good Reading for Poor Readers,*[7] and *Gateways to Readable Books,*[8] also aided us in finding the right book for the right child.**

VI. Vocabulary

A. **Vocabulary growth came as a normal part of the guidance in communication skills.**

B. **Challenged the student with (1) cartoons, (2) editorials, (3) puns, (4) humor, (5) interesting word origins, (6) crossword puzzles, and (7) games; students challenged each other with words found in their reading.**

VII. Parent Participation

A. **Parents invited to a series of four meetings.**

1. **Discussed program and its purpose.**
2. **Guest speakers discussed personal and social values of reading, the responsibilities of teachers and parents in developing "readers" who can read and will read.**

B. **Conferences were scheduled with parents at their request.**

In summing up the program: Students decided there were three R's in life and education—Reading, Reading, and Reading. Students were conscientious, congenial, and motivated. The last personal letter, which was an evaluation of the program, revealed that they felt a definite need had been fulfilled and that they wished all students could participate and benefit from the program.

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[1] George D. Spache. *Toward Better Reading.* Champaign, Illinois: Garrard Publishing Company, 1962, p. 46.

[2] Ruth Strang. *Counseling Technics in Secondary School and College,* Revised. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1940, pp. 98-99.

[3] Abraham H. Maslow. *Motivation and Personality.* New York: Harper and Brothers, 1954, p. 411.

[4] George Spache and Margaret Green. *Reading in the Secondary School of Volusia County.* Board of Public Instruction, Volusia County, Florida, pp. 3-30.

[5] Florence Cleary. *Blueprints for Better Reading.* New York: H. W. Wilson, pp. 114-150.

[6] Margaret M. Heaton and Helen B. Lewis. *Reading Ladders for Human Relations,* Revised. American Council on Education, 1955.

[7] George Spache. *Good Reading for Poor Readers.* Illinois: Garrard Press, 1962.

[8] Ruth Strang, Christine B. Gilbert, and Margaret C. Scogger. *Gateways to Readable Books.* New York: H. W. Wilson and Co., 1952.

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2. Reading Guidance in Departmentalized Programs

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MEETING AND ADJUSTING to a continuous series of problems is a normal characteristic of youth. At each level of growth, these problems become more complex and students become increasingly adept at solving them. With careful guidance from parents and faculties, each student at his own level of development encounters satisfying opportunities to set his own goals, to make his own decisions, to measure his own progress, and to understand himself better. Some students lacking this wise guidance are faced with special problems which they cannot resolve independently, so they must receive help from guidance specialists.

Reading guidance assists each student to understand his relation to reading and helps him to achieve greater satisfaction and success in using reading skills efficiently. For maximum results, each member of the faculty is involved in the reading guidance of students in the departmentalized program. The counselor, the classroom teacher, and the reading teacher work cooperatively to develop the well-adjusted student who is a good reader.

The Role of the Counselor

Guidance in reading really begins with scheduling students in classes geared to their needs. A careful study of the records of each student requires time but reduces the number of mistakes in scheduling. This perusal of the test scores helps determine whether a freshman student reading at a sixth-grade level shall be scheduled with a class of slow learners or enrolled in reading to help him enter a class progressing more rapidly. For example, a few years ago while enrolling a sophomore in one of our schools, a counselor noticed that the student was a non-reader with an IQ score of 60 on a group test. This guidance specialist then studied the records thoroughly. During the student's eighth year, his IQ score was listed as 85 and during his sixth year in school it was 95. A Benét administered during his fourth year had resulted in a score of 112. A WISC was administered, resulting in an IQ score of 102. Evidently the boy's scores on group IQ tests had regressed because the reading had become increasingly difficult.

This student was referred to the reading teacher. Since the boy was highly motivated, he did learn to read and was able to be graduated with his class.

One important role of the counselor is this identification of able students who are deficient in reading skills. Some educators are willing to accept a low IQ score as an excuse for poor instruction. Helping students and teachers to understand themselves and each other is an important task of the counselor. This task may involve suggestions for curriculum changes as well as conducting research and follow-up studies.

In addition to proper scheduling in subject-area classes, the counselor must also be alert to schedule students into the appropriate reading classes. Most students, including poor, average, and above-average readers can profit from specialized reading instruction, but not in the same class. The goals and the needs of each are different, so the instruction and the guidance must vary also.

The Role of the Classroom Teacher

The first and probably the most important responsibility of classroom teachers is to provide a learning atmosphere where students can feel relaxed and encouraged to do their best. Instruction is organized to develop readiness and background for the subject, to provide sequential development of the content, to provide aids for learning, and practice to insure retention of necessary information and skills.

Second, teachers of all subjects have the responsibility to provide some guidance in reading. They should see that their students know the vocabulary and can use the study skills necessary for success.

Third, subject-area teachers should provide guidance in the kinds of supplementary reading experiences and specialized library skills required in their courses. This responsibility is becoming more complex as many new materials are being developed. The present trend toward development of learning centers equipped with various programed courses provides for guidance toward independent study if appropriate assignments are made.

Fourth, all teachers should be alert in the identification of students who lack necessary reading skills, so they may be referred to the reading teacher at once. For example, a history teacher noticed that a boy in his freshman class discussed well any information he learned orally but was not progressing in his work. His records indicated that he had a low IQ, but the history teacher was convinced that this score was not accurate. He referred the boy to the reading teacher for further testing. The WISC revealed an IQ of 122. The boy entered the reading class and soon proved that his teacher's classroom diagnosis of ability was correct.

One science teacher was not as alert in identifying student needs and abilities. He sent one of his juniors to the principal's office regularly because he wouldn't study his lesson. When the principal finally asked the student the reason for not having his lesson, this answer came, "I cannot read my science book. If I can find a third or fourth-grade science text in the library on the lesson topic, I study. Some days I cannot find the topic at the library so I cannot study my lesson." The student was placed in a reading class and did make progress though it was too late in his high school career for him to make up for the knowledge he had missed in earlier years because none of his teachers had recognized that he had reading problems.

The coaches in our schools make many referrals to the reading classes. They know that an athlete who can read and who knows how to study will probably be eligible to participate in sports all year.

The Role of the Reading Teacher

The role of the reading teacher involves many phases of the student's learning process. The basic steps in improving reading skills are similar for average, below-average, and above-average readers but the organization of the program for

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each has many variations. The steps include preliminary testing to diagnose needs, careful planning to provide appropriate instruction, and continuous evaluation of progress.

Attitudes usually improve and personality problems tend to disappear as the student becomes aware that the reading program is geared to his individual needs. He observes that tests are administered to identify needs and that instruction is tailor-made to improve weaknesses. He notices that the teacher accepts him as he is and is not shocked by low scores in a reading test.

Each student confers with the teacher to discuss his scores, to set goals, and to plan ways to improve his reading achievement. Time is spent in making study schedules and in setting up immediate and long-range goals. Students realize that extra time devoted to reading improvement during a semester will result in a saving of time all through their lives. They also learn that better study habits and improved reading skills will reduce study time and will improve academic grades.

Diagnosis includes a review of other areas related to the reading process. Academic potential is assessed. The student's visual and auditory acuity are tested. The purpose of the reading diagnosis is to lead to the development of a helpful program for the student. It should reveal how the development of reading ability is related to the personal goals and values of the student.

Interesting materials at the appropriate levels are selected to develop the skills in which deficiencies have been identified. Motivation increases as students record their own scores and are aware of daily slight increments of progress. In classes for below-average readers this improvement may be the first time the student has met success for a long time.

Charts to show improvement in specific skills are as motivating for the accelerated reader as for the poor reader. Organization of materials and graphs to record progress are provided in many texts or can be devised for use with other materials.

Grades in other classes do not automatically improve after enrollment in the reading class, especially if the student is reading several grades below grade level. The reading teacher and the student may notice marked improvement, but self-satisfaction requires passing grades in other subjects, also. This guidance and instructional role of the reading teacher is not easy in cases where poor attitudes and poor study habits have become habitual.

Direct teaching to improve reading in specific subjects often is the solution to this problem. Reading teachers help students improve their attitudes, their grades, and their self-confidence by teaching students such subject area skills as to:

1. Use efficiently the parts of a book and to interpret the maps, charts, and illustrations in it;
2. Apply the study skills most appropriately used for each subject;
3. Pronounce, define, and use in sentences the words from the weekly spelling lessons;
4. Recognize and use the parts of speech;
5. Understand literary selections from the English class and related vocabulary and terminology;
6. Use the SQ3R method of study; and
7. Set purposes for reading and practice reading for specific purposes.

Encouragement of reading of library materials for information, for recreation, and for personal needs has guidance values, also. The secondary school student who doesn't read lacks much information about his own thoughts and feelings and also about those of others. Will Rogers once said, "Everyone is ignorant only on different subjects." The person who doesn't read is ignorant on many subjects.

The reader learns so much about human relations in his own family and throughout the world . . . facts that he would learn in no other way. Any device that motivates the student to read widely helps him to develop into an independent, thinking individual. He may be able to solve or to be reconciled to his own personal problems if he reads about similar situations. Definite guidance to a specific book may help a student see how others have learned to live with or have overcome similar problems.

For example, an impending divorce in the family may be very tragic to the teenager but by reading *Sundays from Two to Six* by Virginia Abaunza, he may gain some insights and be able to view the event with less emotion. All students will gain in understanding of the problems of minority groups and will be more willing to change social attitudes by reading *Snowbound in Hidden Valley* by Holly Wilson, a story of an Indian girl; *Blue Willow* by Doris Gates, a story of a migratory worker's daughter; and *New Boy in School* by Justus May, a story of a Negro boy.

By reading, students learn about the required training and the many responsibilities of specific vocations and professions. This knowledge helps them to make intelligent, independent choices. One freshman with a low-average IQ and without industrious habits had planned to be a doctor because his grandmother desired it. Influenced by some of his outside reading, he has decided to be a chef. Grandmother will be just as proud of him when he prepares gourmet meals for illustrious patrons.

The final test at the end of the reading course may indicate that the student is not yet reading up to his potential but that he has made progress. Most students have learned techniques, the use of which will help them continue to improve academically. Some may need to plan additional instruction during the summer session or a refresher course at a later date. Each better understands his own limitations, capabilities, and goals.

This improvement in reading is definitely related to guidance. Some emotional and personality problems disappear entirely when academic success is experienced. Students improve their self-image, acquire increased ability to make mature adjustments, and develop responsibility for their own progress.

When students with severe reading and personality problems are referred, reading teachers have been known to remark, "What do people expect of my reading class—miracles?" Reading teachers cannot perform miracles but in some cases the results can almost be classified as such.

I remember a defiant freshman boy brought to the reading teacher by a guidance-minded principal one day in October. The principal explained that Paul had been in trouble several times, had an unsympathetic, domineering father, and had this one last chance to stay in school. He asked the reading teacher to enroll the boy but said she would be entirely justified in refusing to admit this student with serious emotional problems.

The reading teacher accepted the challenge and the result was really a miracle. By May, Paul had improved two years in reading ability and had conducted himself so well that all his grades were improving. That summer he asked to come to summer school, which he did attend. He is now a well-adjusted, achieving student, and will be graduated with his class in June.

One of the rewards of teaching reading is to help students overcome problems and achieve success in school and beyond formal school days.

Summary

The goal of education is to make guidance unnecessary. The student must develop from dependency on others to self-reliance. He must learn to analyze his problems, his strengths, and his weaknesses. As he accepts the responsibility for self-appraisal and self-direction, he gains in maturity and self-confidence.

Parents and the entire school staff must cooperate to provide the kinds of experiences that will help each student achieve his goals. The administration, the counselor, and the teachers, provide the atmosphere, the curriculum, and the learning activities which influence the attitudes and the reading achievements of all students.

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C. SECONDARY LEVEL

1. Preparing Readers for an Automated Society

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THE AGE OF AUTOMATION appears to loom over us or tantalize us with untold, often unimagined prospects. Is this age a lure or a threat? Will human beings be able to adjust to this "brave new world"? What should we be doing now in our teaching to ensure that today's children can enjoy the world of tomorrow, of which we know little but that it will be vastly different from today's.

Many groups in society are becoming concerned about these problems. At a recent conference of businessmen, industrialists, economists, and educators, the theme was "Education and the Productive Society." One of the frequently stated propositions was that formal education for all will be unending in a world in which machines will have taken over not only the routine work of the unskilled but also much of the work now regarded as skilled. For example, a May 1964, news release from the Pennsylvania State University indicated that computers were being used to aid in developing architectural designs:

> The computer draws the picture and shows the perspective, then the planner knows exactly where he is putting his materials. The computer actually has a picture of what the building looks like from all angles. The architect can examine the building in this manner and look at it from different views. It will not only visualize buildings, choose appropri-

ate materials and project them both on a screen for study, but it will also add up the cost of the materials and building components as it progresses through the building product-selector process.[1]

It appears that there will be little left for the architect to work on but the aesthetic aspects of the design. Langfors, a Swedish aircraft designer, has put it another way: "the human designer . . . will work on improving system information . . . rather than solving the specific design problem being processed. Designers will design the designing system which designs the actual objects."[2]

What does this brief introduction to the world of tomorrow imply for today's teachers of reading? Three aspects appear to be important: technological literacy and flexibility, effective communication, and preparation for leisure; these will be examined both for their effect on programs and methods and materials of teaching reading.

Technological Literacy and Flexibility

Economists predict that during the working lifetime of today's children, each will change his type of work at least three to five times. We must, therefore, try to train children so that they become flexible.

The experience gained from retraining programs is not too helpful, however. A U. S. government program was organized to train relatively unskilled people for the new world of work. By May 1964, of 107,000 who were approved for such training, only 17,000 actually finished the courses. It is important to recognize that notwithstanding the small group of graduates, this original group was the cream of the unskilled crop. They were by and large the better educated of those who were out of work, and they were neither the very young nor the very old in the work force.

While many factors accounted for this large attrition, a major one appears to have been their inability to benefit from instruction in new techniques due to their failure to read efficiently. I would suggest, therefore, that the period when functional literacy was essential has been superseded by one in which technological literacy is imperative. In terms of level, this range appears to be a minimum of grade VII reading but is rapidly moving upwards to grade IX reading competence.

Functional literacy included the developed ability to unlock unfamiliar words with ease. This differed from one linguistic system to another, but this definition also included the ability to comprehend material at a grade IV level. It is in the area of comprehension that greater demands will be made.

What are these comprehension skills which appear to be basic for mobility within automated society? The following list suggests some of these:

1. The ability to follow a *sequence* of directions;
2. The ability to *formulate* (not merely choose) the main idea;
3. The ability to recognize the *relevance* of details;
4. The ability to appreciate the *importance of the relationship* words, which put conditions upon the thoughts;
5. The ability to *interpret* a wide variety of diagrams, charts, graphs, and figures;
6. The ability to *realize discrepancies* in the presentation of ideas, particularly in the factual material; and
7. The ability to *recall* and *utilize* the information gained from reading in other situations.

These reading-comprehension skills which have been suggested by people who work in retraining programs do not, at first glance, appear to be too different from the normal goals of a normal program. Stress however, is placed upon the *functional* application of these skills, particularly on material which contains a high proportion of fact.

The secret of flexibility in an automated society appears to be in ensuring that all our students reach a level of development in comprehension which will enable them to apply these skills to a variety of content, but particularly to technical content. In today's world and tomorrow's, nothing is so perishable as a narrow skill. Through the security of his reading-comprehension ability, lies the possibility for today's student to adapt himself to the changing context of tomorrow's opportunities.

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[1] Quoted in P.B. *Education and Productive Society* edited by H. Ziel, Gage, Toronto, 1965.

[2] B. Langfors "Automated Design," *International Science and Technology* Feb. 1964, 90-97.

Effective Communication

If machines are to serve man and permit him to perform the humane functions of a human being, competency in the performance of technical-reading skills is also not enough. It is the ability to use language for purposes of complex communication which separates men from animals. So it now appears essential to ensure that the reading-skills development is complemented by development in other aspects of language, listening, speaking, and writing.

Too frequently in our schools we still tend to divorce reading from the other aspects of language. It has been suggested that the age of print has evolved into the age of multi-media, and that we are now on the verge of a culture which will be primarily oral. This supposition is not to deny that there will be no place for reading matter in future generations but rather that reading will be the main reinforcing element in a world where speech will have primacy.

In teaching reading, our faith in objectivity has tended to blind us to the value of the reader's forming his own ideas of what has been read. Discussion of these ideas must take place; nor, in spite of some of its advantages, can programed reading and teaching machines take the place of the vital dialogue between teacher and students. Teaching machines are never wrong, and thus they can never teach wisdom. The student cannot argue with them or tell them they are ambiguous or confusing. As a result, the student loses the wonderful opportunity to grow as a person by working with the teacher as together they search for understanding.

It is only through such interchange that the majority of students will be led to understand the full implications of what they read. Too often the teaching of comprehension does not progress beyond literal understanding. Unhappily, far too many adults have never achieved the social understanding or the ethical and moral integrity needed to interpret the front page of the newspaper.

Frequent opportunities must be provided for students to "talk out" and "write out" their ideas. It is true this takes time; but as our schools themselves become more automated, teachers will be freed from routine tasks and should, therefore, concentrate on this type of activity which technology will never replace.

To ensure that such teaching is effective, teachers need to ask questions designed to check the accuracy of information gained from the printed page. In addition, such accuracy questions *must* be interspersed with questions to which there are no right or wrong answers, though there may be better answers. The answers may be better or worse, depending upon a legitimate, differing interpretation. Students must learn to question both themselves and the author as they read.

Read, discuss, write is a sequence of activities which will lead not only to more discriminating readers but also to adults who can communicate more effectively through whatever avenue of language they need to use.

Education for Leisure

Coincident with increased automation, increased leisure time is usually forecast. It appears paradoxical then that when this is evident, we are currently in an educational period which is emphasizing "education for work," and there is pressure to eliminate the "frills in education." It may be that neglect of these so-called "frills" will be viewed as the most serious deprivation in years to come.

It will be a major challenge to teach people how to use their leisure time effectively so that it has a meaningful relation to their work tasks. They should not seek work compulsively as a way to avoid the discomforts of free time, for there are discomforts in leisure if one is not educated to use it. Many people become anxious when they are not doing anything. It is not every family that can stand the man around the house all the time.

Teaching the creative and fulfilling needs of leisure requires a life style and a state of mind which must be engendered early in life, rather than when people suddenly and anxiously find they have too much free time from their jobs and they do not know what to do with it.

In spite of all the competing attractions of television, reading continues to be one of the main leisure activities. There is ample witness to this fact in the expansion of library facilities throughout the continent. Yet, the home environments of many children are not conducive to encouraging reading. Thus opportunity for leisure and pleasure reading must be provided within the school program. Nor is it sufficient to provide a period on the timetable labelled "library" and merely allow the student to read what he likes. The program of reading for pleasure should be as well organized and prepared as the rest of the program.

Teachers and librarians should work together as the "reading counselors" of students. Such counseling should encourage both variety and depth of interest and should foster catholic as well as specific tastes. It is not the purpose of this paper to detail the main ways in which this task can be done; many professional texts contain sound suggestions.

One additional point needs to be made, however; the program should *not* be confined to encouraging only fictional reading. It appears likely that there will be more opportunity for "do-it-yourself" activities in the automated society. More people will want to learn to play a musical instrument, to paint pictures, or do more maintenance jobs about the house. There are a very great number of books already catering to the market for such books and this market is likely to increase. Too often, library-reference skills are taught exclusively to extend academic knowledge. We should not neglect the importance of relating such skills to social and leisure information.

Conclusion

The quality of our reading programs will be judged in the next generation not only by how well the population can read but by whether it uses reading effectively to safeguard human communication and satisfy a variety of leisure activities. In education, the need to keep a balance between developing marketable skills and developing general knowledge which will enable students to make competent decisions on their own in later life has never been more evident. This condition inevitably demands the re-education and continuing education of teachers themselves. If we are not "to exhaust ourselves by running in order to remain in the same place," we must begin planning now to ensure that our reading programs will prepare today's children for tomorrow's world of work and leisure.

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3. A Plan for Low Achievers in Reading on the Secondary Level

GWEN F. JOHNSON

SINCE OCTOBER, 1960, Beaufort County District One has been involved in what is locally known as the Beaufort Reading Project. In the Beaufort Senior

High School, the emphasis was on involving all staff members and all students and that emphasis continues. The presentation in this paper is confined to the program for certain ninth grade students.

In the spring the junior high school sends to the guidance department of the senior high school test data and faculty recommendations concerning students who are to enter ninth grade in the fall session and who rank lowest in over-all reading achievement. These low achievers include students of lower intelligence levels and also pupils of higher intelligence levels who are not achieving to capacity. Approximately forty students are selected for two sections with which this phase of our reading project is concerned.

The two periods of block time are centered around social studies and English with emphasis upon reading improvement. The time is often divided into four parts: (1) free reading, (2) English, (4) directed reading, (4) social studies. At times the social studies class time may cover directed reading and "English." Each part may last from twenty to twenty-five minutes or longer if the situation merits.

The free reading time is just what anyone would expect. The reader is free to choose his material to be read. In order to make this possible, an adequate classroom library of multilevel materials is necessary. The subjects and reading levels are varied and when used often enough bring rich rewards. Students keep daily records of what they read and, along with the teacher, set up goals that they are likely to meet. Informal discussions, "chat" sessions, and "buzz" sessions lend variety, interest, and information. The teacher must accept, encourage, and appreciate the student at face value and exhaust all measures to create within him a reading spark that will kindle into a fire.

The basic English text is *Vocational English I* by A. E. Jochen and Benjamine Shapiro (Globe Book Company). This text is slanted toward the pupil's preparation for a vocation and presents materials and exercises that will be helpful in the one he chooses. Students are also urged to complete high school before seeking permanent employment.

Directed reading focuses on the study and re-teaching of skills needed for reading and studying varied kinds of materials. *Effective Reading* and *Successful Reading* by Lawrence Fiegenbaum (Globe Book Company) are used for reinforcement texts for these skills. The texts are designed to help the students by providing selections which they are likely to meet on any given school day. The selections are in varied lengths and have questions that give opportunities for improving comprehension and vocabulary growth.

The D. C. Heath publication, *Teen Age Tales,* is used for directed reading also. The selections are long: ranging from 1,685 to 8,020 words. Comprehension questions are designed to promote discussion and allow students to project themselves into the stories.

In addition to the aforementioned texts, Science Research Associates Reading Laboratory II C is used for directed reading. The multilevel materials take care of all the students at one time and guide each to move upward in reading improvement.

The basic social studies text, *Homelands Beyond the Seas,* Iroquois Press, is designed for upper elementary level students. The reading level and content seem to meet the needs. In addition, individual copies of several social studies textbooks are available. Students subscribe to and enjoy *Read Magazine,* a bi-monthly publication of American Education Publications. *The Britannica Junior Encyclopedia* is used for research and *World Book* is available if needed. The *Thorndike-Barnhart Junior Dictionary* and individual copies of *Hammond's Student Atlas* facilitate and promote student interest. Social studies reading skills are recognized as part of the total program of reading improvement. The correlation of these skills promotes a more interlocked and less fragmented class situation.

The aim of the slow learner-low achiever program is evident—self-improvement through the personal experiences of reading. Students, staff, and the community see evidences of self-improvement brought about through these experiences.

Self-improvement through reading is not accidental but is the result of certain conditions deemed necessary for a successful reading program. These conditions are: (1) provision through block-type teaching for students to have the same teacher for two consecutive periods; (2) setting up realistic goals in terms of student needs (release from "grade level" expectations); (3) a school climate favorable to the project, including cooperative attitudes on the part of administrative personnel; (4) provision of special materials; (5) selection of a teacher trained and experienced on both the elementary and secondary levels. Greater gains seem assured as these conditions become more integrated into the fabric of the total school curriculum.

B. Reading in the Secondary School

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1. Nature and Scope of Developmental Reading in Secondary Schools

ROBERT KARLIN

> "In the judgment of the Committee, the greatest opportunity for progress in teaching reading during the next decade lies in an intelligent attack on reading problems that arise in the content fields. Satisfactory results can be attained only . . . as teachers from the kindergarten to the university recognize clearly their responsibility. . . ."[1]
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> ". . . When training in reading skill takes its rightful place in the secondary school program. . . ."[2]

Status of Developmental Reading

These exhortations sound very familiar to anyone who reads the current literature on the teaching of reading in high school. But they were not uttered this year or last year or ten years ago. All were urged upon us more than twenty years ago. Is it possible that we have heard but not listened? Is it possible that most of us continue to acknowledge the value of high school reading programs but fail to act upon them? It would appear so. One of our dedicated colleagues who for years has labored in behalf of secondary reading wrote less than six months ago: "The most discouraging circumstance is that so little has been done to implement sound ideas that were advocated and tried years ago."[3]

Although there have not been any recent nation-wide surveys on the status of reading programs in high school, we do have reports of conditions in scattered areas of the country. There is more reading instruction at the junior high level than at the senior high level. How widespread or significant reading instruction is in grades seven, eight and nine is really not known.

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[1] William S. Gray, "A Decade of Progress," *The Teaching of Reading: A Second Report*, Thirty-sixth Yearbook, Part I, National Society for the Study of Education, Bloomington, Ill.: Public School Publishing Co., 1937, p. 20.

[2] Stella Center and Gladys Persons, *Teaching High School Students to Read*. New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., 1937, p. 140.

[3] Ruth Strang, "Progress in the Teaching of Reading in High School and College," *The Reading Teacher*, XVI (December, 1962), p. 173.

What is the state of affairs in areas that have been sampled? McGinnis[4] reported that 61 per cent of 1,029 college freshmen said that their high school teachers did not show them how to improve their reading skills. Less than 10 per cent of 570 secondary teachers claimed to have any training in teaching high school students to read. Simmons[5] who sampled 127 high schools in five states found that only one school claimed a staff member trained as a secondary reading teacher.

The literature contains many descriptions of secondary reading programs throughout the states but these comprise but a very small percentage of the total number of *possible* programs. And many of these leave much to be desired. I have and you too must have personal knowledge of schools which *claim* to offer reading instruction to all who can benefit from it but which have no organized plan in reading. Whatever help is offered comes from isolated efforts of individual teachers.

The time has come to face the facts squarely. Do we believe that students in grades 7-12 need help in improving and extending their reading ability? Do we believe that haphazard efforts to help students in reading fail to meet the requirements of school and society? Do we believe that each teacher can contribute to the reading growth of his students? Do we believe that reading is a major goal of reading instruction? If we do, and I daresay most of us do, then real efforts to implement these beliefs are long overdue.

Scope of Developmental Reading

An examination of the increased demands in reading which are faced by students as they enter secondary schools should underscore the areas which a balanced developmental reading program must cover. They include greater depth of understanding, improved fact-getting techniques, increased ability to organize and remember ideas, increased ability to evaluate what is read, and greater ability to adjust reading habits to different reading situations. Added to these are the attitudes toward books and other media as represented by functional and recreational reading.

Six major areas for which a secondary-school reading program must make provisions are: *comprehension* which includes literal and interpretive understanding, critical evaluation and individual word meanings; *study skills* which include the location, selection, organization, and retention of information, following directions and reading graphic aids; *appreciation* which covers style, form, ideas and imagery; *rate of understanding* which includes varied speeds for reading narrative and expository writing, skimming, and scanning; *interests* which deals with the development and extension of reading for leisure; and *word recognition* which includes structural analysis, phonics and the dictionary.

In the typical developmental reading program, less attention will be paid word recognition than the other reading areas. Most pupils will not require intensive instruction in attacking new words. But some students may be weak in the higher level identification skills such as using the pronounciation key of a dictionary or dividing some words into syllables. It would not be surprising if they were to need some help with phonics too. Inherent in a developmental reading program is the principle of beginning where the students are. We offer instruction where and when it is needed.

It is noteworthy that few reading programs are identical in scope or operation. There are, however, basic conditions which all programs should meet, namely:

1. A good program reaches all the students who can benefit from its offerings.
2. All aspects of reading are covered.
3. All teachers feel some responsibility for reading. Major responsibility is assumed by trained teachers.
4. Instruction in reading is based upon demonstrated needs.
5. Evaluation of the program's effectiveness is continuous.

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[4] Dorothy McGinnis, "The Preparation and Responsibility of Secondary Teachers in the Field of Reading," *The Reading Teacher*, XV (November, 1961), pp. 98-101.

[5] John S. Simmons, "Who Is Responsible? The Need for Qualified Supervision of Reading Programs." *The English Journal*, LII (February, 1963), pp. 86-88, 93.

Establishment of Developmental Reading Programs

There is no set formula that a school may follow in order to establish a reading program. There is, however, a basic ingredient that should be contained in any attempt to organize one. It is the cooperation that is characteristic of some schools' efforts to define the problem and effect a solution. A program is no better than the teachers who administer it. It cannot succeed unless it has the support of those who are responsible for it. Teachers are partners with administrators in operating a school; they must share in any formulation that affects them. A reading program that is imposed upon a faculty is not likely to succeed; it should grow out of a recognition that a need exists and deliberations of how the need may best be met.

A faculty that has analyzed its school's reading needs and carefully studied how to provide for them is bound to conduct a more successful program than one which has not had these same opportunities. Nevertheless, periodic evaluation of the program is a requisite to its continuing success. Even though the practices appear to be justified by the results, they may even become better. A professional faculty is engaged in a never-ending search for knowledge, and its influences are likely to affect the quality of its efforts.

Is it realistic to expect a high school faculty to assume responsibility for the development of an all-school reading program? Some critics do not believe that most high school teachers are sincerely interested in contributing their efforts to such a project and advocate that specialized personnel be brought in to do this job. I have frankly discussed this matter with a number of teachers and have found that most of them were eager to join with others in organizing a reading program even though they had other duties and responsibilities and were uninformed about reading. A few were willing to let the administration tell them what was needed and how to proceed. Interestingly enough, the former set a major condition of participation: That the group's efforts would be accepted by the administration to the extent of sanctioning experimentation with any recommended program and procedures. This sidelight on how teachers view the reception their ideas receive from higher authorities reflects some suspicions groups of teachers have about the realities of so-called democratic school organization and supervision.

Methods and Materials for Teaching Reading

It seems to me that the teaching of reading in high school should have as strong a base as the teaching of reading in elementary school. This is not to say that all elementary school reading instruction is of the highest quality. But high schools, few of which have integrated developmental reading programs, have an opportunity to get such programs underway by establishing them on firm foundations. May I suggest that these foundations rest in the psychology of learning. I have said elsewhere that growth in reading may be achieved via different routes. We know that learning occurs under all kinds of conditions. But our task is to provide a learning climate in which opportunities for *maximum* development is present. Until better constructs become known, I am proposing that we follow generally accepted principles of learning in teaching reading to boys and girls. The implication of this suggestion is that there isn't a single method but that any method be consistent with the principles of learning.

Permit me to briefly state what these principles are:

1. What the learner knows becomes the basis for new learning.
2. New learning is simple and becomes progressively difficult.
3. The goals of the learner are equally if not more important than the goals of the teacher.
4. The learner is able to attain agreed-upon goals.
5. The ability to withstand failure is best obtained through success.
6. Skills are taught in sequence.
7. A structure is provided wherever possible.
8. Meaningful learning replaces rote, isolated learning.

9. Transfer is part of the teaching-learning process.
10. The learner can recognize growth when it occurs.

The translation of these basic principles may be illustrated by the following procedures:

1. Find out what students know and don't know before offering reading instruction. Standardized and informal testing will reveal students' strengths and weaknesses.
2. Try to tie the instructional program in reading to problems which confront the students. Better results may be expected if they feel a need for learning or improving their reading ability than if they are told that they will have to perform some time in the future.
3. Use materials which students can manage without becoming frustrated. Too simple or too difficult materials are unsuitable for instructional purposes.
4. Break down gross skills into smaller ones and teach them in order of difficulty. For example, students learn to identify important ideas and details before they learn to outline. They learn to determine the topic of a paragraph before they identify the key sentence.
5. Use the text and context. For example, introduce new words as they appear in sentences and paragraphs instead of compiling lists of words. Their meaning depends upon other words which surround them.
6. Work with students before asking them to perform. Practice in using reading skills should follow careful guidance.

Additional examples of teaching procedures will be offered as I consider materials of instruction.

The selection and use of materials to teach reading are determined largely by the way in which a school views the reading process and undertakes the establishment of its reading program. A faculty that has not had the opportunity to study the nature of reading and methods of promoting growth in reading is likely to turn toward "canned" instructional programs in the hope that they will provide a solution to its problems.

An increasing amount of materials is available to teachers of reading, and there is no reason why they should not be used. It is unrealistic to require teachers to prepare all their own materials when a good supply is available. Even if teachers were able to create them, other limiting factors would interfere with their production. Trained reading teachers can select from available sources the materials they need and introduce them judiciously. Although some materials are superior to others, it is against their indiscriminate use that objections have mainly been raised.

The aim of the lesson should govern what materials are chosen and how they are used. The text in a practice book may be suitable for teaching a special reading skill but the accompanying exercises may not be particularly helpful. Materials for developing a skill may be scattered throughout a workbook rather than found in one section. A sufficient amount of practice exercises may not be contained in a single source. Teachers must modify, compile and supplement the material in these practice exercises. To these requirements is added the most important one: their introduction must be preceded by instruction.

It is recommended that instruction be provided through the materials for which the students are responsible. The textbooks, supplementary books, magazines and newspapers that students read are excellent vehicles of instruction; selections that are representative of them are suitable also. The teacher must know what he may use and how he may use it in order to achieve his known purposes. If the materials in reading textbooks and workbooks are not suited to the purposes for which the teacher intends them, then perhaps the ways in which they are used may be adapted to other types of materials. Some of these books contain excellent ideas for teaching reading skills; the creative teacher can utilize them to accommodate other materials.

One very worthwhile project which a committee of teachers might undertake is the evaluation, preparation, and compilation of materials for developing specific

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reading skills. A cooperative effort such as this not only would put into the hands of teachers the materials they need but also free them to study ways of improving their own programs.

We have been exploring the elements of developmental reading programs with the view to providing guidelines for your consideration. Other speakers today and tomorrow will be commenting upon specific aspects of these programs. The ideas contained in these presentations should serve as jumping-off points for further study and evaluation. Planned reading instruction in junior and senior high school is long overdue. Here is a real challenge for us all. Are we ready to accept the challenge? I hope we are.

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2. Initiating a Developmental Reading Program in High School

JAN LUCAR
Caddo Parish Schools

OUR SCHOOL SYSTEM, for the most part, follows the advice of Alexander Pope: "Be not the first by whom the new are tried, nor yet the last to lay the old aside." Experimentation is the customary policy which precedes the introduction of anything new to the curriculum. This is a secure and comfortable procedure for the personnel working on the instructional staff in any large school system.

Even though the need for reading instruction in the high school area is felt nationally, and is part of the curriculum in many secondary schools, our school system laid careful ground work before reading was added to our curriculum. Many problems presented themselves for solution, and not all have yet been solved. Not the least of these problems has been in-service training for high school teachers who have had no experience in the teaching of reading.

Background

It will be helpful to present some background of the reading program that has been in effect in our parish for a number of years. In Louisiana, schools are operated on a parish wide basis; we have sixty-four parish systems and there are three city school systems. A parish in Louisiana is the civil division equivalent to a county in other states.

A developmental reading program has been in effect in Caddo Parish in grades one through six for many years and with the employment of two reading specialists in 1964, the school board prepared to extend the reading program to include grades seven and eight.

This reading program has been in effect during this school year; the basal program is used in these grades in a regular classroom environment. Provision was made also for remedial reading classes in grades nine through twelve. Basal readers are used throughout this entire reading program, and the Informal Reading Inventory is given for the purpose of grouping.

Experimental Reading Class

Personnel on the instructional staff, responsible for the reading program, felt that high school remedial reading classes could be taught by English teachers already employed in the schools if basals, manuals, and accompanying workbooks were used. With some in-service training by the reading specialist assigned to sec-

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ondary schools, it should be possible for untrained teachers to follow the manual of a basal series and to teach the essential reading skills.

Many of these high school English teachers objected to the use of elementary basals in the high school area. They proclaimed that the high school pupil would not read these stories that he had "read" in elementary school. It developed that this was the idea of the teacher—not the pupil. Therefore, the reading specialist decided to teach a group of high school pupils for a period of six weeks, using a basal series, to determine what would happen.

The reading specialist made plans with the principal and administrators of one high school for the formation of an experimental reading class. The principal and administrators chose fourteen pupils to participate in the reading experiment. It was necessary to take these pupils out of their regular classes each day from 11:45 to 1:00 to participate in this experiment.

The fourteen prospective participants were administered the Informal Reading Inventory and the *California Reading Test,* form X. The scores of five of the prospective participants showed that they were already reading at grade level, or above, so it was decided that these five would not be compatible with the proposed experiment nor with the other participants. They were, therefore, sent back to their respective classes and did not take part in the reading experiment.

Using all test scores as a basis, nine pupils were admitted to the experimental reading class and were placed in instructional groups; seven were placed in a sixth grade reading group, and two in a fourth grade group.

The method of instruction employed with this experimental group was the developmental reading procedure using a well-known basal series and its accompanying manuals and workbooks. Library books at third, fourth, fifth, and sixth grade reading levels were provided for use when the assigned class work was completed.

Dolch Basic Sight Vocabulary Flash Cards were also used with the two boys in the fourth grade reader. After some help, these boys were able to use the flash cards without aid from the instructor.

The class continued for a period of six weeks, with uninterrupted instruction. At the end of the six-week period the *California Reading Test,* form W, was administered. Scores from the first and last test appear in the table below, along with instructional level from the administration of the Informal Reading Inventory.

		California Test X					California Test W					IRI
Pupil	I.Q.	Voc.	Gr. Pl.	Comp.	Gr. Pl.	T G.P.	Voc.	Gr. Pl.	Comp.	Gr. Pl.	T G.P.	Inst. Level
1	123	20	8.4	35	9.0	9.0	30	10.7	40	10.0	10.5	6
2	86	11	6.3	23	7.4	6.9	13	6.8	37	9.3	8.5	6
3	89	18	8.0	33	8.7	8.6	25	9.6	34	8.9	9.4	6
4	91	13	6.8	31	8.4	7.9	23	9.1	26	7.8	8.4	6
5	85	16	7.5	24	7.6	7.5	18	8.0	32	8.6	8.5	6
6	92	14	7.0	26	7.8	7.5	17	7.7	21	7.2	7.3	6
7	90	14	7.0	24	7.6	7.3	10	6.1	38	9.5	8.3	6
8	74	16	7.5	21	7.2	7.2	15	7.3	26	7.8	7.6	4
9	80	6	6.0	7	6.0	6.0	11	6.3	15	6.5	6.0	4

A comparison of test scores from the two tests given offer proof that most of the members of the reading group made progress during this concentrated period of instruction.

On the first day of actual instruction, when the basals were introduced, some of the pupils indicated they had read the books in the fourth or sixth grade. Three different basal series are used in elementary schools, so it was true that some had seen the books used in this experimental group and some had not. The general purpose of this experimental class was explained to them, and from this time on they gave their full cooperation to the instructor. The participants did not, at any time, offer resistance to reading either the stories in the basals or the library books. In fact, they seemed interested in both and pleased that they could read them with ease.

At the conclusion of the experiment, and following a conference with the principal and administrator of the school, the reading specialist felt that it could be safely assumed that a classroom teacher who grouped pupils within their own reading levels, and who used basal texts and manuals as intended, could almost certainly provide adequate, progressive instruction in high school for the below grade level reader.

At the present time, in four high schools in this parish, there are ten reading classes for the below grade level readers. Teachers are now being trained for added classes in the fall of 1966, and the new term will begin with a total of at least fifteen classes.

In-Service for all English Teachers

Concurrent with the initiation of classes in the high schools for below grade level readers, in-service meetings were held with English teachers to introduce techniques and methods for teaching reading and literature in regular English classes. It was demonstrated to these English teachers how all pupils could be helped by putting on the board some of the more difficult words from a story or play, by giving some background of the story, and by writing on the board a few questions to set the purpose for reading.

It was further demonstrated how reading skills, in the comprehension area especially, could be taught after the silent reading, through discussion of the story. The teachers were encouraged to strengthen word skill by actually using previously introduced vocabulary for word analysis.

English teachers are still being encouraged to do these things through faculty meetings, small in-service groups, an annual pre-school reading workshop, and a parish wide reading in-service program during the school year.

Individual Differences

A workshop was held this spring for English teachers, and one meeting was devoted to meeting the challenge of individual differences in all classes. Unfortunately, some pupils in regular English classes are unable to read the books on the list distributed by the teacher, usually in the fall, as a list of required reading for the course. Therefore, it was suggested to these teachers that they give different lists to the below grade level readers, listing titles the pupils would be capable of reading. The school librarian is an excellent resource person to aid teachers in preparing individualized reading lists.

In this spring workshop, English teachers were urged to give individual assignments commensurate with the capabilities of the pupils. This procedure would not necessarily involve twenty or thirty different assignments, but usually could be grouped into three or four.

Reading in Content Subjects

Too often, because every teacher is considered a teacher of reading, no teacher actually teaches reading in the specialized subjects. Reading in the content field offers a challenge, and consultants in specialized subjects are frequently called in to work in our parish with staff members, principals, and teachers. Those responsible for reading in the secondary schools feel that the success of the total reading program depends upon the inclusion of reading in specialized areas. *Every* high school pupil should be given reading instruction.

It is necessary to help all secondary pupils reenforce and strengthen reading skills. They also need help with study skills. A great deal of material has been distributed to help not only teachers of English, but teachers of all specialized subjects, in order that they may teach all secondary pupils how to use reading and study skills. For instance, many of our parish teachers were introduced this year, for the first time, to the *SQ3R* method of study. Ground work has already been

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laid, through conferences with principals of high schools in Caddo Parish, to initiate special reading activities in all senior classes for the college bound student. A large percentage of the students in this parish system are college bound and they need techniques in reading to aid rate, critical reading, and some word study.

Summary

The school system discussed in this paper has been in the process of initiating a developmental reading program. While much progress has been made, certainly the program leaves much to be desired. Experimentation has been, and will continue to be, the basis for introducing new methods, techniques, and materials into the curriculum.

The basal reading program in grades one through eight, with correctional reading classes in high schools, has been successful and will be expanded next year in the high school area. In-service programs, workshops, and small faculty group meetings already instituted have brought new concepts to teachers and all of these in-service institutes are to be continued and expanded in the future.

A complete developmental reading program cannot be achieved overnight, but is a continuous, on-going program that requires constant experimentation, research, and upgrading. This school system has made a good start, has achieved reasonable success, and will continue in an attempt to solve the pressing problems in the field of reading.

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2. Organizing and Scheduling a Developmental Reading Program

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SEVERAL FACTORS CAUSE secondary school teachers and administrators to take a careful look at senior high reading programs. Our school population has changed considerably in the past fifty years. Lack of full-time employment for young people, the social and economic values attached to a secondary school diploma, chronological promotion, and an increase in the school-leaving age have resulted in young people staying in school for longer periods of time. Fifty years ago, many of these boys and girls would not have entered high school.

Not only have the numbers of those who stay in school increased but the composition of our secondary school population has changed. This is a second factor which causes us to take a hard look at our reading programs. Today we must provide for young people of different socio-economic and ethnic groups, of different cultural backgrounds, and of different abilities and interests. We must be able to give them an education, or rather "educations" of which both they and we are proud.

The third factor which causes us to examine our reading program is a somewhat belated realization that reading has to be taught. Reading is developmental in nature. Not everyone of the same chronological age can be expected to read equally well.

Before we can consider the organization of senior high reading programs, we must be familiar with earlier provisions for reading instruction. Some schools are finding that a Reading Improvement Committee is useful for sharing information regarding what is being done and for determining what improvements may be made.

At the primary grade level, these and many other questions need to be answered. Is instruction geared to the abilities of boys and girls? Are teachers of beginning

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reading aware of various methods of instruction so that they can adjust techniques in order to employ those by which a given child, or group of children, learn best?

At the intermediate grade level, do all teachers continue the development of reading skills through systematized instruction? Is work-study reading in the content subjects provided for boys and girls of differing reading abilities? Is class size such that the teachers can help individuals who are experiencing difficulties? Is there provision for a sound remedial program? Do classroom teachers work closely with the reading teacher?

At the junior high level, do teachers use different materials with slower sections? Is corrective and/or preventive work provided for all seventh and eighth grade boys and girls? Is remedial work continued for those who have not reached their indicated ability?

When the answers to the above questions and many others have been obtained, the senior high teachers are ready to consider what their organization for reading instruction should be. Right here there is likely to be a rather serious difference of opinion. Some teachers will suggest that the hiring of a "remedial" teacher will solve the problem.

While it is true that work should be continued with certain students who are late maturing, upset emotionally, come from foreign speaking homes, or from atypical cultural environments, such remediation will not reach every student. Indeed, the numbers should be reduced as earlier clinical efforts restore boys and girls to their regular classrooms. A good remedial program is part of a good developmental program, but it cannot and should not be substituted for it.

Other teachers will suggest that a class called "Reading" be included in each student's schedule each year he attends secondary school. There appear to be two serious limitations to this way of providing for reading instruction. First, there is no body of subject matter that can be labelled "Reading" in the way that we speak of "social studies," or "English." Reading has to be "in" something or some body of subject matter. Second, the purpose of the whole school reading program is to make readers independent. It scarcely seems logical to promote independence in reading by "spoon-feeding" everyone with a subject to be taken every year of school.

Both the remedial program, continued for some until they leave school, and the junior high provision for reading instruction are important components of a Developmental Reading program. But the only way to make a reading program truly effective is to place it where it belongs—in every classroom.

Efforts are being made in the preservice training of teachers to increase their knowledge of classroom techniques for improving learning and study skills in both the Language Arts and content subjects. However, in-service training should complement pre-teaching experiences. One or two days devoted to a cursory look at the school's reading program, or a required series of meetings after school on a K-12 basis are relatively ineffectual. A brighter hope for increasing the effectiveness of the classroom teacher appears to be through what might be termed "informal in-service training." This is possible in those schools fortunate enough to have one or more competently trained reading teachers.

There appears to be a curious disagreement as to the function of the reading teacher. Administrators frequently think in terms of so many boys and girls needing remedial help. This help is certainly important; but there is a long term view, also, of the role of the reading teacher. Once accepted by the faculty, the competent reading teacher has countless opportunities for making suggestions concerning newer materials, more effective procedures, and for questioning techniques which help remove the barricades to learning which poor reading and study skills place between the learner and his book. Overall responsibility for the school's reading program should be one of the functions of the professionally trained reading teacher.

Classroom teachers, particularly Language Arts teachers, have a commitment to the sequential teaching of reading skills. Here, a *Reading Skills Checklist,* similar to the one developed by the State Education Department of New York (single copies available from the University of the State of New York, State Education Department, Albany, New York 12224) is of considerable help in deciding who teaches what and when. Individual teachers may question the grade placement of specific skills and there are likely to be individuals and even whole classes for whom instruction comes too early or too late, yet this checklist helps bring order out of chaos.

Certain skills (map, chart, and graph reading, and outlining, to name a few) may be introduced by the Language Arts teacher but actual use is in materials found in the content areas. The problem is "How does a school staff organize itself so that content teachers are aware of what skills have been taught?" Effective application in content materials depends upon timing and upon increased understanding of the reading skills involved.

One organizational pattern which fosters exchange of information of the sort necessary to implement the refinement and development of skills after they have been taught initially is the formation of teaching teams. If a reading teacher is included on each "team," a situation is established whereby more effective in-service training is accomplished. The reading teacher and the language arts teachers can work with other members of the team at designated times during the school day.

Language arts teachers may wish to build into all college-bound senior English classes a "get-ready-for-college" reading program. A less effective way, in that it does not reach all students, is to make this work elective or optional after school. In any event, such a course should include listening skills, note-taking from short college-type taped lectures prepared by other members of the faculty, creative reading from several sources, with the preparation of an outline of a term paper or the actual writing of the term paper, speed of comprehension work employing books such as Baker's *Reading Skills* (Prentice Hall), *Reading Laboratory IVA* (Science Research Associates), and Wedeen's *College Reader* (G. P. Putnam's Sons).

Scheduling remains a problem. Many teachers will at first feel that they do not have the time to cover required curriculum and provide practice in reading skills as well. However, with increased attention to purposive assignments of different kinds and questioning designed to clarify the problems encountered in the subject matter to be read, many teachers find that they can apply reading skills while they are covering the required curriculum. Reading classrooms or laboratories can be set up in each school so that readers in need of help can use study periods to advantage.

One other problem of scheduling merits consideration. Where reading improvement programs include reading class instruction offered by itself, usually no credit is given for the class; but, where it is combined with language arts classes, credit is given.

In summary, the senior high developmental reading programs should include remediation for those able to profit from it, a reading skills program taught in all language arts classes and applied to content reading in other subject areas, and work for the college-bound designed to make them more effective readers of college-type materials.

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4. Teaching Reading via Television

C. MICHAEL O'DONNELL

"HIGH SCHOOL READING" is a ten-week basic remedial reading course consisting of twenty 30-minute television lessons. The television classes, each a complete consideration of one reading skill, have been recorded on video tape. This was made possible through a grant from the Ford Foundation. The series is now being televised on the Maine and New Hampshire ETV Network.

The course was planned for use by ninth grade students having difficulty in reading. It was assumed that the secondary teachers using the series would not have any professional training in reading.

The television lessons are used to initiate or introduce the nineteen skills studied in the course. There are two telecasts a week, followed by three days of classroom instruction. A comprehensive manual was prepared for use by teachers without a reading background, to facilitate adequate pre-telecast, post-telecast, and classroom instruction. The manual takes the classroom teacher through every phase of the course, including suggestions for brief pre-telecast activities, daily assignments in five different skill books, lesson plans for off-telecast days, and helpful hints for dealing with individual differences.

The instructional level of "High School Reading" is upper grade six. Many of the exercises cover skills that students have traversed before. However, teachers were advised to follow all the lessons outlined in the guide. The course is corrective in that it stresses basic reading skills rather than accelerated developmental reading. Schools using the series were asked to avoid the terms "remedial" or "corrective" when deciding on a course title or dealing with students and parents.

Ninth grade students were screened for enrollment in the series on the basis of results from group reading tests. It was felt that students reading either above grade eight or below grade six would not benefit greatly from participation in the course. No attempt was made to classify students according to mental ability.

The basic text selected for the course is *Tactics,* a special paperback edition published for "High School Reading" by Scott, Foresman and Company. Four alternate skill books were also adapted to the course. They are as follows: *Advanced Skills in Reading,* Macmillan Company; *Be A Better Reader*, Prentice-Hall; *How To Improve Your Reading Ability,* Science Research Associates; *Basic Reading Skills for High School Use,* Scott, Foresman and Company. In addition to a basic text, schools were given a list of twenty-five scholastic paperback selections and requested to purchase at least two for every student enrolled in the course. These books were reviewed in the first telecast.

The preparation of each one-half hour television lesson involved two considerations, to visualize abstract reading concepts and make lessons interesting to students who were not particularly motivated. An effort was made throughout the series to encourage students to stay in school by using subject matter pertaining to the drop out problem.

The traditional way of starting a reading course by introducing word attack skills was changed in favor of comprehension exercises. Since many of the students enrolled in the series would be having difficulty in their "reading" subjects, such as social studies, it was felt that comprehension exercises would provide the participant with an opportunity to find immediate application of the reading lessons in other subject areas.

The first television lesson was used to review the twenty-five paperback selections that were used to stimulate independent reading. Several devices were employed to review the books such as scenes acted out by University students, film clips, dialogues, actual reading, and still pictures. Teachers were requested not to require their students to make either oral or written book reports. In an initial survey of 832 students enrolled in the course, it was found that each student read an average of 4.7 books during the ten-week period.

Examples of production and techniques used to introduce skills were as follows: a giant crossword puzzle to climax the lesson on dictionary skills, a man-size blowup of a textbook to use in demonstrating study skills, a vowel record hop used to introduce a unit on word sound, a working model of an automobile used to compare familiar auto parts with familiar parts in unknown words and illustrate the idea of words as a structure of interrelated parts.

"High School Reading" was not developed to provide a panacea for some of the difficulties that secondary school students were having in reading. The primary purpose of the course was to give secondary teachers an insight into the reading process and to demonstrate practical methods for offering an expanded program. Many former users of the series eventually enrolled in extension centers and summer schools that offered courses in reading, with the intention of working full time in this area.

Although no scientific testing program was attempted, because of limited funds, some schools reported student reading gains, but most important, many students were made to re-evaluate their goals and attempt to improve their reading ability.

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4. What's Wrong with Reading Programs

To introduce a negative note at this time is not to change the subject, *promising practices stemming from research,* or even to deviate from it. Instead, it is to suggest that research has offered more promise than we have fulfilled in practice. While my colleagues discuss specific aspects of this topic, I want to look at the "whole program," the package that is often the practice in our secondary schools.

Let's begin in a classroom in one of the disciplines so that we can see all the students, not just those singled out for special attention in the reading laboratory. Be it a class in business or physiology, the practice lags behind the research. Earnest, hard working teachers give each student a text, assign the reading, and then complain that one of the difficulties of teaching these days is the student's inability to read. For years, research has provided these appropriate guidelines for teaching skills in all classrooms: 1] explain the organization of the texts; 2] teach the vocabulary pertinent to course; 3] present a background for the material; 4] recognize the different skills needed to read that material; and 5] show the students how these skills are related to rate of reading and to comprehension. But the exhortation to follow these simple guidelines has gone unheard. Even a textbook analysis, taking not more than one period of class time, would help many students whose only reading aid at present is the number of pages to cover. In a few schools, demonstrations by the reading teacher may be a promising way for the classroom teacher to catch up with this practice. In the presentations in the history or science classes the reading specialist analyzes the text, reviews the guide questions, and determines the special skills necessary to read the assignments. From such a modest beginning, more teachers in a school may recognize the promise of this procedure for improving the learning environment.

Next, a change in test items might improve reading skills on a school-

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wide basis. The testing procedure using the same kind of items week after week may lead the student to detailed reading when skimming would be more appropriate. Teachers who acquaint themselves with the skills they require in their assignments go beyond these two improvements and take another step long advocated by those aware of the reading differences in our classrooms: differentiated assignments including an oral presentation for those unable to read. Should this practice become established, our colleagues would stop harrassing us with statements like "I thought John was in your reading class. So far he can't do the reading I require."

To move from the all-school practice to practices in the reading classes is to come to the specific concerns of many teachers. In the rush "to do something about reading," we have accommodated ourselves to bandwagon techniques as often as we have accommodated ourselves to good practice stemming from research. It is easy to follow the pattern established by the school district "down south" or "up state." Thus, to build a reading lab for 25 students, to equip it with carrels and machines to develop speed, and then to persuade an interested teacher (a trained one is unavailable) to take charge of students with many kinds of problems is common practice, rather than promising practice. (In one school I visited the carrels were ripped out after two months. The temperatures were unbearable!) Recent research in language or linguistics and factors related to reading make this kind of reading program more suspect than it was a decade ago when packaged materials and machines first became popular and were defended as devices for motivation.

Research in language has been related to beginning reading programs for some time. Its importance to secondary programs has been neglected and is only now being realized. The increasing numbers of severely retarded readers in our new high schools have necessitated a re-examination of our procedures. The workbooks for word analysis skills have paid little or no attention to dialect differences. Neither has the teacher. Regardless of their backgrounds, high school students with reading problems have been given the same materials. The Spanish-speaking pupils who have difficulty with pronouncing our *ng*, final *m* and *n*, as well as *s* clusters and final clusters, use the same materials provided for the slow learner and/or native speaker with a particular dialect. Between these extremes are the many dialect problems of the various cultural and ethnic groups in our school population. Linguists have told us no one phonics program can be satisfactory for all dialects, and a phonics program inconsistent with the dialect of the learner may confuse him more than it helps him develop fluency in word analysis. A study in Memphis of dialect patterns revealed that certain students substituted their spoken English, their own dialect, for the printed English. Not only the sound patterns, but spelling patterns of recent research, are overlooked. Spelling is still taught as a list similar to a primary list of sight words.

Hannah's research defines the spelling patterns we can and should teach (*4*). Aware of this research, we can only blush over our present practice of so many words per week, from *absence* to *zither*. Roberts' series of texts for the elementary school accent spelling practice based on research. This material would be useful at any grade.

Concurrent with pronunciation and spelling difficulties are vocabulary difficulties. We know dialects vary in meaning and the same word does not always express the same idea. Yet what happens in our reading classes? Students who are at similar comprehension levels, according to whatever test and text the school uses, complete the same exercises, generally silently, with no discussion of the selections and the vocabulary used. Our "silent" reading classes, with their emphasis on written materials, will perpetuate, not alleviate, vocabulary difficulties.

Research in language has also substantiated the relationship of reading interest and ability to verbal ability. The high school student who limits his communication with teachers to monosyllables and gestures finds the idea of reading difficult for social as well as psychological reasons: he can function without it and he has never had success with it. He does not see himself as a person who reads—either in the reading class or out. Holmes' research on the sub-strata theory about abilities related to reading can provide some guidelines for appropriate practices to help these students (*5*). You recall that Holmes lists four major subvariables: 1] knowledge of vocabulary in context; 2] ability to understand verbal analysis; 3] auding defined as the ability to manipulate verbal symbols; and 4] knowledge of vocabulary in isolation. These four have in common the ability to use the language as a symbolic system. The range of information the student possesses; that is, his awareness of the environment; and his general knowledge also contribute to the four variables. Clearly, to awaken an interest in reading the reading class must be a forum where the student can hear ideas discussed. Skills prerequisite to good reading cannot be practiced with materials insulated against the interests of the day which challenge many of our adolescents.

Our reading programs, built around some local research stressing magnificent semester gains in speed and comprehension, often use a lockstep procedure with so many class hours for each skill. Regardless of test results or implications from observations, each student does the same thing. Consciences are salved by levels of difficulty. Some students might profit from group learning while others might improve with the tutoring programs recommended for the less privileged. Reading teachers must explore the areas in which peer group help is effective.

An umbrella comment about reading practice is not complete without a mention of speed. Many guides for reading programs emphasize the daily use of speed tests for all. Yet speed tests pay no particular attention to content, to the students' interest in that content, or to the purpose in reading that content quickly. The student whose test results indicate that practice in skills should take the place of all speed exercises still does the speed drills with all the other members of the class. Increased speed is often a major goal in so-called development classes of college-bound students. Yet, these same students may be going into work requiring slow and careful reading. Moving with the speed of a sidewinder's tail across the page is not the sole desire of college-bound readers. For many of them, an opportunity to read widely might be of greater value than an opportunity to complete skill building exercises. Who does remember their content? A few years ago, one university administrator told parents that fifty dollars spent on paperback books was a surer way of helping Johnny to college than fifty dollars spent on a course to improve reading skills.

Finally, if skill and life-long interest in reading are our ultimate goals, reading material must be selected for these purposes. The material must have something to say. Our high school students are as concerned about what happens in Viet Nam as we are. The material cannot be such pap as the number of bottlecaps in a carload of pop; it must be literature, good literature, related to student concerns. It cannot reflect the teacher's tastes solely. Secondary teachers, according to Shores, are less accurate than elementary teachers in selecting books to fit student interests. The teacher must expand this interest.

What's wrong, then, with our reading programs? Too many packages are tied up in a hurry with only a loose string attached to research. Strengthening this string, always considering the implications of local situations, will indeed make our practice promising—promising for the future of literate young people who might be capable of a Watts riot or a White House Conference.

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b. Responsibility for Secondary Level Reading Programs

ELIZABETH A. SIMPSON

Planning an effective secondary school reading program is the responsibility of both administrators and teachers. Both groups accept this responsibility with increased understanding and enthusiasm when they are convinced of the tremendous role that reading competency and interest play in promoting individual growth and social progress. For continuous increase in a person's knowledge throughout life the steady development of an individual's reading abilities is essential. With the rapid *explosion of knowledge* reading ability is even more essential today than ever before. It is the school's obligation to develop these abilities and interests, so that all students may attain increased independence and enjoyment in reading. To accomplish this objective the secondary school must provide a reading program that encompasses the reading needs of all students and is an *integrated extension* of the elementary program. One of the most significant issues in the teaching of reading is the development of organized reading programs in the secondary school curriculum for the purpose of extending and refining reading skills, interests, and tastes. The responsibility for such programs is currently receiving its rightful recognition in many schools.

Reading Team

Organizing, extending, and evaluating a reading program might well be compared with similar aspects of planning the school's athletic program. Both programs require *team cooperation* and *team spirit*. The responsibility for the effectiveness of the school's reading program is carried by a number of players on the reading team. The development of the program is dependent primarily upon how successful the partnership is among administrators, teachers, librarians, students themselves, and parents. *Administrative enthusiasm,* understanding of the broad aspects of the reading program, and budgetary support are essential. Readiness on the part of the teachers, or *teacher readiness,* to develop the best possible program is a staff responsibility and obligation. *Librarians* aid in both guided reading for purposeful growth and pleasure and in helping young people to develop personal tastes and interests in reading. The *student* must develop the incentive for success in reading and for extending his reading horizons. Through *parental responsibility* one creates the atmosphere for reading. It is important to set an example for young people through reading and exposing children to good books at home. All five groups play an equally important role in the success of a reading program.

A Balanced Reading Program

There are four components to a *balanced reading program.* These are: (1) development of the *basic reading and study skills* which determine general reading ability, (2) mastery of the *specialized reading and study skills* in the content subjects, (3) opportunity to do *guided reading* for purposeful development and (4) experiences in *reading for pleasure.* All four factors need to be emphasized concurrently by the appropriate staff members.

To organize and extend secondary reading programs more effectively an increasing number of schools are organizing a *reading committee* to assume these responsibilities. This committee should be composed of at least one representative from each curriculum area, the administration, guidance department, library and reading staff. A reading committee so comprised broadens the base of interest in the program throughout the school and avoids the isolation that surrounds some programs—or the close association that sometimes exists between reading and English but not with the other curriculum areas.

The responsibilities of the reading committee are numerous. Among the most important are (1) appraising how well a school's students are reading, (2) planning the program so it is tailored to fit local needs and serve the students most effectively, and (3) selecting techniques and materials that are most in harmony with the wide spectrum of reading abilities and capacities of present-day students. Other significant responsibilities of this committee include (1) deciding where in the secondary school it is best to initiate or to extend the reading program, (2) determining for whom the program is primarily designed before it is launched, (3) establishing evaluation criteria, and (4) helping to plan in-service training for the staff who need and desire it.

Key Figures

The key personnel are active in a reading program. Major figures are the *reading consultant* or *supervisor*, *special reading teacher*, *English teacher*, and all *content teachers*. Staff in some schools include all of these persons, in other schools not all are available, and in still other schools only one key person is employed. Because the conditions in each school system and even among schools within a community are diverse, the responsibilities assumed by each key person will vary considerably.

Reading consultants or supervisors are hired either directly by the school as a part of the regular staff or by contractual arrangements with an outside organization for consulting services. The writer has been a reading consultant to public and private schools through the services provided in reading at the Illinois Institute of Technology. The consultant usually is the liason person between the teachers and the administration. In most situations the supervisor does not work with students except in demonstration lessons for teachers. His primary responsibilities include (1) over-all guidance of the reading program, (2) evaluation of available test data pertinent to reading, (3) recommendations concerning most effective groupings for reading training, (4) consulting with the reading committee, (5) demonstration lessons for teachers of reading and content as well, (6) selection of suitable materials, and (7) development of in-service training programs. At all times the consultant evaluates the program and is a public relations spokesman both in the school and community. In one Mid-West high school the consultant assumes all responsibilities mentioned and teaches two voluntary developmental reading classes for good readers who can learn to read better, as well as to teach reading classes in the summer session.

The prime responsibility of the reading teacher is to teach students either on a voluntary or required basis—to improve their reading. It is his obligation to understand the student as fully as possible, to sympathetically recognize his strengths and weaknesses and to select the kind of techniques and reading aids that are most in harmony with each student's needs and interests. The reading teacher can make or break his program depending upon the techniques and materials he selects and the way in which he applies them. He must *sell* to his students the values of reading. This implies that the reading teacher must be a reader himself and reflect the kind of ideas and personality that result from extensive reading. It is the teacher's responsibility to establish criteria to assess the success of his efforts. Some situations demand that the teacher be trained to give standardized tests to aid in this evaluation. Upon occasion the reading teacher may be invited to give demonstrations of techniques to content teachers or to evaluate and discuss the reading abilities of certain students in their classes. In an increasing number of secondary schools the reading teacher is teaching a planned unit of reading as an integral part of the English curriculum with the assistance of the English instructor. In one program the reading teacher counsels with parents every Wednesday. Another reading teacher has a wide variety of materials available in the school's Reading Laboratory and is responsible for recommending and demonstrating them to other teachers and coordinating their use. In schools which have a Reading Laboratory—like Highland Park, Illinois—the reading teachers assume full responsibility for equipping it with a wide variety of testing and instructional materials.

English teachers out of sheer necessity have become key figures in some secondary reading programs, partly due to the lack of trained reading teachers and the increase in secondary programs. More than once an administrator has analyzed the school's test data on reading, found that many of the students' reading proficiency was below average and quickly drafted an English teacher to launch a reading program because of the nature of his training and experience with literature. Some English teachers are *ready* to teach reading—and some are not. In certain schools reading is more closely identified with English than any other subject, which is unfortunate, inasmuch as reading is the base for learning in all content subjects. Nevertheless, in current practice in some schools English teachers are solely responsible for the secondary reading program. Many English teachers have gone back to college to better prepare themselves to teach reading in schools in which they are assuming leadership for the reading program. The nature of the responsibility varies from teaching a planned reading unit as a part of the English curriculum to being wholly responsible for a required reading course or instructing groups of students who voluntarily desire reading training. The writer knows of English teachers who work with the most handicapped readers for a full year in a course that provides these students with an elementary type of language arts experience, including reading. In certain of these situations the most crippled readers are seen for two additional periods each week. Despite the type of reader it is the English teacher's responsibility to provide the student with literature to read in harmony with his reading ability.

How many times have you attended reading conferences and heard a prominent speaker say, "Every teacher is a teacher of reading." This statement provokes the anger of many content teachers —and rightly so. Would it not be more realistic to say, "Content teachers are teachers of content primarily—and also are teachers of the various specialized reading and study skills that are required to understand a particular subject field." The content teacher does not think of himself as a reading teacher because he is trained in one or more courses of study, such as English and social studies or mathematics and science. As a specialist, his prime responsibility is to aid his students both in acquiring and applying knowledge in the field in which he is an expert. To achieve this goal he also must assume the responsibilities for analyzing the materials to be read to determine the special reading and study skills that the student must call into action to read with understanding, familiarize himself continuously with the reading strengths and weaknesses of his students and take the time whenever needed to teach these special skills to his students. If he fails to assume these three major responsibilities, he is short-circuiting his students in the learning process. The content teachers must recognize individual differences in reading proficiency and capacity and expect varying degrees of success in the content subjects. One of the basic skills to be taught by each content teacher is the *purpose* for study in a particular subject, which is quite different, for example, in the study of literature as compared with the study of science. Content teachers must do more than pay lip-service to the fact that proficient readers are usually more successful learners.

Communication—The Missing Link

The lack of communication among the members of the reading team is far too frequently the *missing link* in a reading program. Students who improve their reading facility are the most effective communicators of a successful program. Likewise, the responsibilities for communication rest heavily with teachers, administrators and those who provide the standardized testing services. In one school each content teacher as well as the two reading teachers receive a card containing their students' reading test results at the latest testing date prior to the beginning of a class. This card, or sometimes a profile sheet, is prepared by the guidance department. If there is no guidance department responsible for the testing program, the information may be communicated to all teachers by the reading teacher or consultant. Some of these forms

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D. SENIOR HIGH LEVEL

1. Experience Needs of Capable Students

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THE SEMINARS at Beverly Hills (California) High School constitute one of many types of programs geared for the academically talented high school student. The primary objective of these seminars is the development of the reading and study habits, attitudes, and skills of the gifted readers.

Beverly Hills is a residential community of about 35,000 people. Although it is surrounded on all sides by the metropolis of Los Angeles, Beverly Hills is an independent school system with four elementary schools (K-8) and one high school (9-12). More than ninety-five percent of the high school graduates enter some aspect of higher education; thus, the curriculum is academically oriented.

The high school seminars are part of a four-faceted operation under the direction of the reading and study skills consultant, K-12. He directs the special services for remedial readers in grades 4-12; he supervises the high school study skills classes for the average and above-average reader; he serves as a consultant to any teacher in K-12 who wishes direct classroom help on reading and study skills; and he personally conducts the four seminars.

Seminar Criteria

To qualify for an invitation to join the seminar, students generally must have an IQ above 130, must be reading at the 98th or 99th percentile on standardized testing, and must have *A-B* grades. Each spring, qualified candidates receive an invitation to join for the following term. Once selected, students may remain in the seminar for their four years of high school; thus, they are in the unique position of having a four-year background in philosophy before entering college.

Each of the four weekly seminars (with 15-20 students per group) consists of students from all four grade levels. Having freshmen in the same group as seniors works to mutual advantages for all. The high school operates a special extra period, scheduled in the early morning from 7:45 to 8:30. Into this hour are placed several opportunities for students who wish to take advantage of extra offerings.

Seminar Curriculum

The content of these discussion groups is primarily in the field of the humanities, principally because these particular students seem to pick up a strong program in the sciences and "maths" as they progress through high school—but have few opportunities for electing courses in the humanities.

The curriculum includes readings in philosophy, discussions on contemporary world affairs, and training in advanced reading and study skills. Each September the groups start with Plato and Aristotle and work through the centuries, in chronological order, with selected philosophers, reaching the 20th century by June. For the current two-year period they are reading from the twenty-three great philosophers in the College Outline Series, *Readings in Philosophy*.

Each term, in addition to the philosophers, the seminars give special emphasis to some area of the world (decided upon by them). The purpose is to provide deeper understanding of world peoples and their cultures. Three years ago the seminars emphasized the Far East through a study of the various Asiatic religions of Buddhism, Hinduism, Confucianism, Taoism, and Islam. Two years ago attention was focused upon Latin America, particularly from a political viewpoint. This year the focus was upon Africa, aiming at becoming familiar with the new nations and their leaders. At present the mainspring is Red China and the Soviet Union and their special concerns in Southeast Asia.

In the third area—advanced reading and study skills—these students have difficulty scheduling the regular high school study skills course; thus, the skills they will need for college are incorporated into their program in philosophy and world affairs.

The 1964-65 schedule provides a picture of a typical year of study for these groups:

Topic	*Skill*
1. Plato's *Euthyphro*	Asking questions
2. Aristotle's *The State*	Reading a text assignment
3. Sessions in Logic	
4. Republican and Democratic Platforms on Education	
5. Discussion of the speech on civil rights by Maryland's Governor McKeldin for the Beverly Hills Modern Forum	Note-making from a lecture
6. St. Thomas Aquinas	Checklist for a Critical Reader-Thinker Vocabulary Flash Cards
7. Sir Francis Bacon	
8. Discussion of Gerald Caplan's Modern Forum lecture on psychiatry	
9. Malaysia	Underlining a text
10. Discussion of Joseph Kaplan's Modern Forum lecture on space	
11. Hobbes	Reading political writing
12. Spinoza	Definitions
13. Hume	Literary allusions
14. Schopenhauer	Appreciation
15. Cardinal Newman	Logic
16. Discussion of Ralph Bunche's Forum lecture on Vietnam, the UN, and race problems	
17. Art and Philosophy (led by the head of the art department)	Appreciation
18. John Stuart Mill	
19. Discussion of Dr. and Mrs. Overstreet's Forum lecture on extremism in America	
20. Speed-reading	Flexibility in rate
21. Bradley	
22. John Dewey	
23. Santayana	

Special Procedures

Sitting around a conference table, these students conduct the discussions themselves; the reading consultant is present only in an advisory capacity. Students volunteer for roles as discussion leaders—and receive help from the consultant in techniques for conducting a discussion.

Each student must keep a notebook, which by the end of the four years is quite a valuable piece of property. The consultant aims to develop organization through the notebook because he feels that being organized will be an important step in making students self-sufficient for the independence needed in college study.

Students do not receive a grade in Seminar, but they do receive semester credit, primarily a prestige symbol because these are students who do not need the credit for graduation.

Because the writer feels that it is important for these students to develop a background of reading in good fiction, he adds an extra requirement over vacation periods. During the Christmas holidays and during the spring vacation, students must read a short story per day. During the Christmas 1964 season, these students read 960 short stories. During the week that the author is attending this conference, each seminar member must read a novel. This reading—and all the reading done for the groups—is placed on a Reading Diary kept in the notebook.

Parents play an important role in these seminars. They must sign the acceptance to the invitation made to the student to join. They are kept informed of the readings and offerings. Once a year, in June, they attend, with their sons and daughters, an annual seminar banquet at which they have opportunities to observe groups in active discussion on a topic.

The consultant appoints a senior each year to serve as the student director. He is responsible for coordinating the groups, for serving as a liaison between the students and the consultant for ideas and suggestions; and he plans and hosts the annual banquet. The present student director attended the Santa Barbara campus of the University of California for a course in logic prior to his senior year; and he has been doing a superb job this term in leading all of the seminars on logic.

Evaluation

The final session of the term is always an evaluative one—both written and oral. Because students know that their suggestions will be acted upon, evaluation sessions are always very favorable for the program. A true evaluation would be one in which we could adequately measure the extent to which four years of such experiences influence the lives of these young people following high school graduation.

Until such an instrument could be devised, these students are meanwhile having reading experiences which certainly develop deeper and broader comprehension.

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145. C. JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL LEVEL

1. Organizing Reading Instruction in Departmentalized Schools

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MODERN READING INSTRUCTION is often characterized by its concern for differentiation in technique, materials, and organization. Basal reading programs exhort flexible grouping. Individualized approaches direct children to a variety of levels and topics so that grouping becomes a temporary expediency for a short-term purpose. Language-experience techniques guide the learner into utilizing his oral-use vocabulary in written form. Programed instruction in reading is pitched to the individual, not to a group.

Departmentalized instruction, a mainstay in secondary education though less common in elementary schools, has shown some tendencies for wider acceptance under the guise of non-gradedness and homogeneous grouping Within departmentalized classrooms, usually of 50 to 60 minutes duration, elasticity and differentiation are sometimes embroiled in conflict with restrictions imposed by time, place, and resources.

Good reading programs, regardless of the organization and setting, have some common similarities *(1)*. A penchant for serving individual needs is a basic one. To be a good situation for reading instruction, a departmentalized arrangement must face the same scrutiny and evaluative criteria that are used in judging all reading programs.

If any organization inhibits or detracts from the goals established for reading instruction its use should be seriously questioned. A good program permits the use of multi-level materials and never restricts the child to reading books of only a certain grade level. Circumstances should allow for free, uninhibited reading. There should be group work and individual work. Skill growth must be measured and not taken for granted. Diagnosis of strengths and weaknesses should be an essential part of any reading design. Records should be maintained for every student. Attention should be given to oral and silent reading. Comprehension checks should be a regular part of good reading instruction. The best reading instruction should provide skills for learning rather than offer reading as an end in itself.

Can these characteristics of a good reading program be included in a departmentalized situation? Can the restrictions faced by departmentalized reading instruction possibly be assets? There is ample evidence to support contentions that self-contained classrooms do not in themselves assure differentiated instruction nor do they monopolize all rights to effective teaching. Self-contained classrooms with rigid structuring of reading periods to conform to a daily schedule are certainly not unknown. The fact is, they are commonplace.

Learning may be integrated without keeping children in the same classroom all day. Likewise, keeping them in the same classroom does not assure integrated learning *(2)*. "There may be no bells during the day as in most high schools, but the pupils move from activity to activity according to a schedule and the clock, nevertheless. It is really amazing that elementary schools have adhered so closely to such an arrangement in the self-contained classroom where the teacher is largely free from school-wide divisions in the instructional day" *(3)*.

Numbers often present a problem to the departmentalized reading teacher. If she differentiates instruction, differences must be made for large numbers of children. Rather than a single group of 25-35 children, she must often serve five or six times that number. It must be kept in mind that the departmentalized teacher has the greater advantage of specialization. Her efforts are channeled toward the specifics of reading improvement. The responsibility of a spectrum of subject fields is not on her shoulders. For this reason, it may be easier to differentiate instruction in a specific area for many students than to give a few students competent instruction in many fields.

Books and materials may easily have greater utility in departmentalized reading programs. Because of the funneling of large numbers of students into a restricted area during the school day, individual items and books have greater exposure to more pupils. Programed materials, reading kits, and audio-visual reading aids are conducive to use all day long and not for a small segment of time.

Because mobility, flexible use of library facilities, and scheduling of schoolwide reading specialists for assistance can be frustrating in departmentalized reading situations, some sort of compensation is in order. Compensation may take the form of bringing more materials to classrooms for shorter periods of time, and scheduling the use of outside specialists for assistance with one class so the regular teacher may use recommended approaches with other classrooms and individual pupils.

To reduce ranges in ability, many schools have adopted a departmentalized arrangement for teaching reading. Reducing ability ranges does not eliminate many other differences that make rigid, lockstep teaching unsuccessful. Specialized vocabulary becomes more pronounced with age. Comprehension ability varies, and reading rates also vary greatly although standardized tests (and other bases for grouping homogeneously) reflect similar total reading scores.

Individualized instruction, flexible grouping, and careful diagnosis are magnified needs for good reading programs operating in a single room for a definite period and with a specialized teacher. Within the confines of an assigned room and period, diagnostic, corrective, and remedial reading services must be offered in a manner equally as effective as that used by good self-contained classroom teachers.

Where reading instruction is segregated in departments, there is a tendency to consider reading a subject rather than a

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skill that is used for learning. Mary C. Austin and Coleman Morrison believe departmentalized reading instruction not only fosters the subject concept of reading, but reduces the effectiveness of communications between parents and teachers on the reading progress of children *(4)*.

There are, however, good departmentalized reading designs that fit the needs of pupils, teacher, and parents. If staffing, space, time and materials tend to lend themselves to this kind of organization, it can be an effective arrangement for reading instruction.

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b. Changing Concepts of Reading Instruction in the Development of Basic Skills

ROSEMARY GREEN WILSON

"Changing Concepts of Reading Instruction" as developed by Constance McCullough in the keynote address appropriately dealt with the entire range of reading from kindergarten to college and from general classroom to clinic situations. This address will represent, I believe, a milestone in the field of reading because of its comprehensive yet succinct coverage of an important period of educational growth. As I reviewed the ideas presented in Dr. McCullough's paper in preparation for my statement, I was impressed by the fact that at no level were there greater or more revolutionary changes in concepts regarding reading instruction than at the secondary. Whereas at the elementary level there was change of the degree and kind cited by Dr. McCullough, at the secondary the change was complete and overwhelming. As someone who not only has lived and taught through all these changing years, but has had supervisory responsibility for implementing these changes in a number of secondary schools, I bring you these thoughts today.

A brief description of the background against which these changes took place is essential in understanding the material which I shall discuss in this paper. As a beginning teacher, I was still in the era when children "learned to read" in Grades 1 to 3 and "read to learn" from that point on. There was actually a course of study in reading in use in our school system at that time which stated this fact. Beyond regular periods for "audience reading" and "study reading" in the intermediate grades, no further attention was given to the development of basic skills. Beyond the elementary schools there was complete and utter silence. If you compare this with the wealth of material available today in the area of secondary reading, philosophy, basic principles, techniques, and materials, it is easy to realize how far we have come in the last twenty-five years. Actually, these changing concepts at the secondary level have had their greatest acceleration within the last ten to fifteen years! By standards of educational change and development, this is indeed meteoric.

Let me hasten to add at this point that this change in the attitude of secondary teachers to reading is far from a *fait accompli.* For every high school teacher who is convinced of the necessity for planning and carrying out a program of skills development at every grade level, there are a number who honestly feel that this would be unnecessary if "the elementary schools had done a better job of teaching reading." To this latter group the idea of reading as a developmental process is either unknown or unacceptable. As a result, those of us who work daily with secondary school teachers are faced with a problem of revising and adapting our suggestions and techniques to meet the varying needs of teachers in transition.

Organization of the Reading Program

No more important job needs to be done in a skills program at the secondary level than the planning and organizing of a program which will permit maximum learning to take place. Keeping in mind the varied degrees of teacher readiness mentioned above as well as the increasingly heterogeneous school population at the upper grade levels, some type of grouping which will reduce the range of reading achievement within a class is essential. Fortunately, recent developments including the Conant reports have made it possible to recommend grouping without apologies. What is important now, it seems to me, is the way in which groups are formed, the criteria which are used to determine the grouping, and the allowance for a flexibility which will permit easy correction of errors of placement.

Initial grouping at the secondary level which in most school systems is seventh grade or the beginning of junior high school can best be done through the administration and use of the results of a standardized reading test. Such test results provide a workable basis for a rough grouping for work in the improvement of basic skills. The grade equivalent scores provide sufficient information for dividing classes in such a way that the high as well as the low achievers in reading can be grouped for instructional purposes. Naturally, other evidence of achievement and potential will be considered in assigning pupils to reading groups. Such techniques as the group or individual reading inventory, the complete cumulative record of the pupil if available, teacher observation as recorded in anecdotal records, and other information will assist in the proper placement for reading of those boys and girls who enter the secondary schools with little more in common than their chronological age. If provision is made also for flexibility which permits necessary changes as need arises, the administration has taken a long step toward implementing the program of skills development at the secondary level. In addition to these measures, of course, a certain amount of grouping can be expected as a result of course selection, particularly from ninth grade onward, as vocational choices group students into academic, commercial, industrial, and other types of classes.

It is interesting to note in relation to achievement grouping in the skills program that my experience with teachers has shown them to be overwhelmingly in favor of it. At the secondary level, particularly, where teacher training in the fields of reading is meager or non-existent, there is much evidence to support the greater achievement of pupils in classes in which the range of instructional levels of reading has been narrowed. It is the exceptional high school teacher who has the experience and supply of materials to do the kind of job required in the improvement of basic skills in a completely heterogeneous class. To support this statement further, I can cite the results of a recent survey reported at a meeting of the State Reading Committee of Pennsylvania last week. The questionnaire on which the survey results were based was sent to all teachers, both elementary and secondary, in a heavily populated industrial county contiguous to Philadelphia. The answers to those questions which dealt with teacher reaction to achievement grouping in a basic skills program were overwhelmingly in favor of this type of curricular adjustment. It is also interesting to note in passing that elementary teachers were as enthusiastic as secondary in their preference for some kind of inter- or intraclass grouping.

Approaches and Techniques

Undoubtedly the area requiring the greatest amount of work with teachers at the high school level is that which Dr. McCullough referred to as "approaches" and to which I should like to add the word "techniques." Here, we are not so much dealing with changing concepts as we are introducing an entirely new approach to the group of teachers I have spoken of previously as "in transition." One encouraging aspect of this task is the fact that, with proper guidance, many teachers can be led to see and understand that many good techniques which they have employed for years in their classrooms are, in fact, equally good techniques for use in developmental reading. Certainly the directed reading activity or D.R.A. with its provision for motivation, clarification of concept and vocabulary difficulties, directed silent reading, and check of comprehension has much in common with effective methods which have been used in English, science, and social studies classes for many years.

Another technique, which has proved successful in training secondary teachers in the area of reading, has been the publication by our schools of a guide entitled "Developmental Reading." This provides each teacher with a scope and sequence outline of a course in the development of basic reading skills, detailed outlines on such topics as "Reading with Purpose," "Reading for Main Ideas," "Word Study,"

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and many others, and even a few sample lesson plans to give additional help to the new and inexperienced teacher. Such a guide read individually or, better still, used as a basis for faculty or departmental discussion groups can be of great value in improving the techniques of the classroom teacher. Lacking a course designed for this purpose, a high school faculty could make use of any of the good texts available in this field such as Strang, McCullough, and Traxler's "Problems in the Improvement of Reading," Strang and Bracken's "Making Better Readers," and Brink's "Directing Study Activities in Secondary Schools," or "Reading Instruction in the Secondary School" by Bamman and others.

At the time of the publication and issuance of the guide "Developmental Reading" in our city, a television series was inaugurated to introduce it. This consisted of a series of ten telecasts sent to the schools on our high-frequency educational channel every Friday during faculty meeting time. Many of the telecasts took the form of demonstration lessons illustrating various basic ideas described in the printed guide. The series proved highly successful and a "refresher" course on television is being planned for next year. While there are few school systems that would have the facilities for a TV series tailored to their own needs, much could be done by state departments of education, by educational foundations, or by closed-circuit TV to demonstrate good techniques in the kind of reading needed at the secondary level. So much has already been done by these means in the fields of science and mathematics that we can hope for an extension to reading in the near future.

Since the limitations of time do not permit an extended discussion of techniques in this presentation. I should like to suggest an article in a publication known to all of you that might be helpful. "The Reading Teacher" for January, 1961, contained such an article entitled "Improvement in the Language Arts: A Progress Report" which described in some detail an all-school reading program developed at Edison Senior High School in Philadelphia.

Materials in Use in the Reading Program

Fifteen years ago when I first started to work in the specialized field of reading at the secondary level, any discussion of materials of instruction would, of necessity, have been brief. In the intervening time, however, the situation has improved considerably as the following changing concepts of reading began to be realized and understood:

1. The need for reading improvement for *all* secondary school students from the lowest to the highest achievers.
2. The need for materials to provide worthwhile practice exercises for the development of the basic skills at all levels.
3. The special and urgent need for materials of high-interest and low-vocabluary level for the retarded and/or reluctant reader in the secondary school.

Though publishers were slow in starting on the task of furnishing suitable materials to meet these needs, once the ice was broken a veritable flood has poured on the market. This is so true, in fact, that the administrator with a limited budget has need to be careful in his choice of the many materials available.

There has seemed to me to be particular improvement in the publication of materials intended for the extremes in the reading scale, that is, the groups representing highest and lowest achievement. For the former, there are now available a number of excellent texts and workbooks providing material at a level consistent with the needs of the college-bound student. At the other end of the scale, the low achievers have been provided for with the publication of a tremendous variety of text, workbook, and trade book materials for this group. Though it is not my purpose in this paper to mention specific titles, a request sent to any publisher will result in a complete listing of materials designed for this group in our secondary schools.

A final step in publishing which has been effected to meet the demands of changing concepts has been the development of materials to break the lock-step of the same book for an entire class. With the increased understanding of the range of reading levels within any given grade, has come a need for materials which would permit the classroom teacher to provide for these differences. It is in this field that publishers have shown an admirable imagination and creativity with their preparation of materials for individualized reading programs. Now within the reach of each teacher are materials both in the area of basic skills and literature which are practical and usable even in the large classes of our public high schools.

It is to be hoped that in the not too distant future the "changing concepts" theme of this morning's meeting will have become "changed concepts" at the secondary level. As I have tried to indicate in the course of this paper, much has been gained but much still remains to be done in convincing every high school teacher of every subject field of the importance of contributing to a program for the improvement of basic skills in reading. However, the start has been made and the whole project should gather momentum rapidly as the movement of other great forces in education today has an effect upon this program. One of the "other forces" is most effectively represented in the recent publication of the National Council of Teachers of English entitled "The National Interest and the Teaching of English." Stated in various ways in the recommendations set forth in this brochure and running through many other phases of it is the importance of reading improvement at all levels of the school system. I can think of no better way to bring this presentation to a close than by quoting from this recent and important publication the thought that "Our democratic institutions depend upon intelligent, informed communication, which in turn depends upon the training of all persons to think critically and imaginatively, to express themselves clearly, and to read with understanding."

4. College and Adult Levels

a. College Reading-Improvement Programs of the Future

PHILLIP SHAW

It has been said that the future is a revised edition of the past. If so, clues to future changes in college reading-improvement programs are to be found in criticisms of shortcomings of past programs. Critics of college reading programs had ample occasion to use their blue pencils. As is to be expected, construction of a first edition in a new field required considerable improvisation. Experimentation became standard practice and even took on the very name of what it was not based upon—research, being euphemistically called "action research." Numerous differences in practices developed. Meanwhile this first edition in a new field prospered enormously. From only a few colleges offering reading-improvement programs before 1950, the number affording such a service a decade later has been estimated at 400 out of a total of 1900 colleges in the nation. Side by side with this flourishing growth, there have developed schools of thought demanding a new edition, a more professional product.

The multifarious differences among the nation's college reading programs are well known to readers of *The Journal of Developmental Reading, The Reading Teacher,* the Yearbooks of the Texas Christian conferences, the proceedings of the College Reading Association, and the IRA annual Proceedings. Some programs are based upon counseling policies; others emphasize training by mechanical devices, whereas still others center instruction upon books. Within these three varying categories, further significant varieties of programs occur. For example, among "counseling-oriented" programs those offering guidance individually in a laboratory differ from those providing it to groups in a classroom. "Machine-oriented" programs vary considerably on the basis of whether the basic mechanical device is a reading accelerator, a tachistoscope, or a set of films. As for "textbook-oriented" programs, their practices differ manifoldly according to whether the books used in the training are the students' regular textbooks, expository books about effective reading, or manuals of reading exercises.

Critics of college reading programs have especially deplored the extensive use of "machines" for training in reading. In fact, their complaints have been directed against all kinds of drilling, including

PART II CURRENT ISSUES IN READING

1. Educating Teachers for Secondary Reading Instruction

A. Sterl Artley

In terms of evidence gathered from teachers and principals, and from research studies dealing with the status of reading on the secondary level, there seems to be ample indication that we have done a better job of showing the need for an extended reading program in grades seven through twelve than we have in training teachers to fill the positions that we have created.

Studies completed in the last few years by Smith,[1] Baughman,[2] and Jordan[3] in Missouri, Florida, and Illinois show that in half to over three-fourths of the junior high schools surveyed, some type of reading course or courses were included in their offerings. These studies taken only as examples are indicative of a growing trend to include programs of reading instruction in at least a segment of the secondary schools. This is the beginning of what one hopes will become the practice where reading instruction will be as much a part of the school program in grades seven through twelve as in grades one through six.

However, surveys similar to those above indicate a serious deficiency in the training of those having the responsibility for organizing and teaching reading courses. Thornton[4] found that in 120 high schools of Texas only one teacher in three had any type of specialized training in reading in those schools where it was taught. Smith found in the study to which reference has been made that in one-half of the schools where the program met this criteria of comprehensiveness the person *supervising* or *directing* it has no training in the reading area. Smith also found in those schools not having a program that the reason most frequently given was, "lack of specialized help."

McGinnis[5] recently reported, on the basis of a study in Michigan, that whereas 82 per cent of the high school teachers were taught in college that reading skills could be improved, only ten per cent received any instruction in how to teach reading. She concludes, "At the present time secondary teachers are not providing instruction in reading, nor are they adequately prepared to do so."

A Program of Pre-Service Training

It is obvious that one of the first things that must be done is for institutions preparing teachers on the secondary level to include as part of the pre-service training a course in developmental reading. Mary Austin even goes so far as to recommend "that a course in basic reading instruction be *required* (italics mine) of all prospective secondary teachers."[6] Furthermore, she recommends that this should be a separate three-hour course rather than a unit in an English methods course. With these recommendations we heartily concur. Though they may appear extreme to those who are reluctant to add additional professional courses to the education curriculum, the fact remains that a teacher can teach effectively only when he is secure in his understanding of the objectives of the course he is teaching and the methods of attaining them. This is being said with a full awareness of the importance of a knowledge of the subject matter which is to be taught.

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[1] Kenneth J. Smith. *A Survey of Seventh and Eighth Grade Reading Programs in Selected AAA Missouri Public Schools.* Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Missouri, 1963.

[2] M. D. Baughman. "Special Reading Instruction in Illinois Junior High Schools," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals,* 44:90-95, November, 1960.

[3] James Jordan. "A Survey of Certain Policies and Practices in Florida Junior High Schools," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals,* 42 (September, 1958), pp. 71-77.

[4] Robert Thornton. *Developmental Reading in Texas Secondary Schools.* Texas Study of Secondary Education, Research Study No. 23. Austin: State Department of Education, 1957.

[5] Dorothy McGinnis. "The Preparation and Responsibility of Secondary Teachers in the Field of Reading." *The Reading Teacher,* 15 (November, 1961), pp. 92-97.

[6] Mary Austin, et al. *The Torch Lighters,* Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1961.

However, making available a professional course does not appear to solve all the problems. The difficulty is that of getting advisers to include such a course in their advisee's program. Though this may attest to the fact that some of us may be better readers than teachers, the real reason appears to be that the program is frequently arranged by an adviser who is a subject matter specialist. With his academic orientation the adviser is inclined to view any type of education course as suspect, to say nothing about a course in reading, for, "isn't reading taught on the elementary level?" Being divorced from the actual high school classroom, as many of them are, the advisers are quite unaware of the changes that have taken place in points of view and practice. To this problem there seems to be no easy solution other than that of deliberately establishing a close liaison with these advisers and pointing up to them the facts as they exist in high schools, thus helping them see the need for preparing their students more adequately for the conditions that they will actually face when they step into a classroom.

A Program of In-Service Training

Our past failure to train teachers to handle reading on the secondary level leaves staffs quite unprepared to help the present generation of students. It seems necessary, then, to provide an in-service training program to prepare teachers on the job to do what they should have learned to do in college. It is to this problem that a committee of the International Reading Association addressed itself in Chicago last fall. The papers presented at this meeting have been published recently in monograph form.[7] Sections deal with such topics as the organization of an all-school instructional program, preparing teachers in all areas to teach reading, clinical reading, etc. For one who is organizing an in-service program of instruction, this monograph should prove invaluable.

Space does not permit a description of successful in-service programs. Suffice it to say that the development of such a program takes time. To develop a point of view, to train teachers, and to get a program under way cannot be done in a few weeks or months. In fact, reports of the more successful programs indicate that several years may be necessary to get a program off the drawing board into successful practice.

Summary

Evidence is accumulating to show that the demand for higher levels of reading maturity to meet adult needs is forcing the extension of the developmental reading program into the junior and senior high school levels. In increasing numbers secondary schools are initiating programs of reading instruction for all students in the school, as well as for those with reading deficiencies. The demand for trained personnel to carry out these programs has caught the profession unprepared. It seems obvious that to meet the urgent need for teachers two things must be done. The first is to provide adequate pre-service preparation of secondary school trainees in the teaching of reading, and the second is to institute in-service programs for those now teaching. To do less is to solve the problem by default.

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[7] International Reading Association. *Perspectives in Reading No. 2: Reading Instruction in Secondary Schools,* Newark, Delaware, Box 119: The Association, 1964.

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2. Opportunities for the High School Reading Specialist

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READING HAS been brought into sharp national focus since the Congress of the United States included it as one of the "critical subjects" under the expanded National Defense Education Act in October, 1964.

Federally Funded Programs

Some of the immediate opportunities made available to teachers through Federal support include the many summer institutes under Title XI, with 53 in Reading. Funds are also available to states on a matching basis for the employment of one or more state reading specialists. These specialists in turn work closely with county and local school district personnel to improve instruction through regularly planned inservice programs and through projects for the acquisition of new materials. Curriculum development centers, federally funded through cooperative research, are engaged in five-year experimental programs preparing and testing new curricula for future classroom use. Federal legislation aiding states and localities is now available to educate the pre-school child, provide for the needs of educationally deprived children, to aid those needing vocational training, build library resources, and to develop a professional program for the prevention of school dropouts. Opportunities in education increase and at the same time add responsibilities for teachers.

Responsibility of the Teacher

Although the many opportunities presently available from Federal and Foundation funds may offer increased educational improvement, we all know that the quality of every classroom program depends upon the teacher, his competence and rapport with pupils.

The teacher in today's increasingly technical world has accepted the responsibility for advancing his students' reading power. This is a man size task in an environment that holds constant distractions. Mass media in the form of television, films, radio, recordings, various sports, and peer group interests, accompanied by a limited space in homes where few young adults are provided quiet and a sense of privacy, are but a few of the activities which compete for the students' time and interest.

Relatively few homes provide a variety of reading materials aside from one local newspaper and one popular home magazine. Responsibility therefore is placed upon the school to provide more time for reading, increasingly better materials, and the opportunity for self improvement.

Even when the student comes to high school with a solid foundation in reading it is important to remember that continuous teaching of reading is necessary through these high school years. Reading needs differ as the student continues in school and into adult life. Reading should stimulate thinking by probing into greater depths, exploring wider horizons, interpreting ideas, analyzing meanings, comparing points of view, examining human progress, enjoying a variety of literary styles, developing new concepts, and evaluating ideas.

The classroom teacher is hard pressed to keep informed of the new materials, methods, and findings in research, as well as to have some personal knowledge of his students, and so the Reading specialist has an increasingly important role in the high schools.

The 1964 report of NCTE on *The National Interest and the Continuing Education of Teachers of English* strongly indicates the need for reading specialists in the high school as well as in the elementary eschool.

Very few colleges and universities engaged in teacher education require a course in How to Teach Reading for prospective high school teachers. Because of this lack of teacher preparation, the role of the high school reading specialist becames even more vital.

The Role of the High School Reading Specialist

The reading specialist serves both staff and students in many ways. This is the person having the vision and training to examine and assess the effectiveness of the total school program in reading. Through systematic appraisal of test results among pupils from high school entrance examinations, both strengths and weaknesses can be examined. On the basis of such findings the specialist can work cooperatively with the faculty in developing a program of reading continuity from grades one through twelve.

In cooperation with guidance counselors, department heads, administrators and other supervisory personnel the reading specialist develops a broad comprehensive program to meet the many needs of high school students.

Lifetime Reading Goals

Skills in word recognition, broader vocabulary development, organization of ideas to improve comprehension, and emphasis on the differing purposes involved in reading various kinds of content must continue through high school.

Reading merely to cover the content is not enough—we need to read with the desire to uncover new ideas, for intellectual stimulation, and to thoughtfully consider the effects of this type of reading on our own ideas. The number of books today is so great we can only touch a fringe of them; therefore our reading must be selective.

Reading must be done with a purpose, to make sure of meaning, to reflect, to judge, and to understand what the author is saying. The specialist can recommend materials and demonstrate new methods for the teacher to use in developing greater maturity among his students. This is not the work of any single age or grade level but a process of continuing development throughout life.

The student who is introduced to history, science, biography, fiction, philosophy, and poetry finds a poise, maturity, and a depth of motivation which influence his entire life.

D. SENIOR HIGH LEVEL

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1. Qualifications of Reading Clinicians

James Jan-Tausch

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Determination of qualifications for any position depends on the functions and responsibilities inherent in that position. The needed training and experiences of the reading clinician are then the natural outcome of a study of the clinician's tour-of-duty..

The reading clinician's chief functions are the determination of the nature and causes of the reading disability and the ascertaining of the methods and materials appropriate for the correction of the disability. In addition, the clinician in making the diagnosis must first determine whether there *is* a reading disability and whether the disability is reversible by correction or maturation, and, if not, what compensations are reasonably possible.

The clinician must at times do the remedial instruction himself and at other times he assists and/or demonstrates the use of methods and materials to teachers in classroom situations as well as in clinical settings. Finally, the clinician must report in oral and in written form both his findings and his recommendations to other professional staff members, to parents, and to the child himself.

Before detailing what training and experience the reading clinician must have, it is necessary that we understand a basic principle in job description—that job training be described in terms of the minimal necessary to permit a satisfactory performance and not in terms of the idealistic. It is not concerned with the best or even superior performance of the clinician.

Based on the above, the qualifications of the reading clinician should include:

Experience

At least one year of successful classroom experience involving the teaching of reading. (This qualification would help insure an understanding of the problems of classroom teachers and would tend to encourage practical recommendations for the classroom teacher to follow.)

At least ninety clock hours of *supervised* clinical practicum working with children having learning disabilities and involving diagnosis and correction of learning disabilities. (This qualification would provide varied intensive experience with children having learning disabilities and with expert counsel available to resolve indigenous problems. Opportunity would also be provided to learn of diagnostic tools, and of corrective methods and materials.)

Training (Education)

1. A Bachelor Degree from an accredited college
2. At least one survey course in psychological testing. This course should include principles of administration, interpretation of results, report writing, validity and reliability of tests. Limitations of testing and report writing should also be included. (As testing is a most important function of the clinician, it is important that he learn of the uses and abuses of testing from a qualified instructor in an accredited institution for higher learning.)
3. At least one course in the teaching of reading. This course should include the initial teaching of reading in the primary grades as well as the developmental program in reading through the secondary schools. (This course should precede the classroom experience and the clinical practicum and serve as a resource in the teaching of reading to all children.)
4. At least one course in learning

theory. This course should include a study of motivation, interests, and emotional factors in learning. (Fundamental to all learning, including learning to read, are certain psychological principles which the clinician needs to be aware of in order that he may understand learning behavior.)

5. At least one course in the physiological basis of learning. This course should include the physiological correlates of perception. It would examine the functions of the central nervous system and the effects of diet and illness on learning. (Differential diagnosis in reading disability is important and cannot be made without an understanding of the relationship between the physiological and the psychological.)

6. At least one course in children's literature. This course would explore the reading materials available to children according to thematic content, level of difficulty, and its appeal to the interests of children at various age levels. (What a teacher teaches and how he teaches it depends a great deal upon the availability of materials. A knowledge of materials and their appropriate use is essential to the clinician.)

7. At least one course in group dynamics. This course should study interpersonal relationships of the child with his peers, the child with his significant adults, and adults with other adults. (Because the clinician's services must be requested by others and because his findings and recommendations must be accepted and implemented by others, it is essential that he be effective regarding interpersonal relationships. Similarly the child is usually taught in a social setting where his relationship to other children and to his teacher affects his learning. It is important that the clinician understand the dynamics of these relationships.)

8. At least one course concerned with the nature and causes of reading disabilities. This course should concentrate on reading as a process and an analysis would be made of the factors that comprise that process. (The clinician who attends only to symptoms of reading disability contributes very little to the prevention and early detection of the factors which contribute to reading disability. He is forever "putting out fires" and finds himself overworked and never "catching up.")

There is no doubt that we can improve the qualifications of any particular reading clinician by providing him with experiences or training in educational psychology, sociology, neurology, pediatrics, research, and or cybernetics, but this is an individual matter to be resolved by the hiring agency and the specific clinician. It is also a fact that there are some reading clinicians who have—through rich experience, wide reading in depth, and frequent participation in conferences, institutes and research studies—attained a high level of skill, comparable or even superior to other reading clinicians who have the qualifications recommended above.

D. SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL

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1. Sound Principles for Individualizing a High School Reading Class

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ONE of the most promising trends in the teaching of reading has been the extension of reading programs into the nation's secondary schools. As high school teachers have experimented with reading instruction in their classes, they have become increasingly aware of the varied reading abilities of their students and have recognized the need for individualizing reading instruction. The range in reading achievement, so apparent in the upper elementary grades, has widened to more than eight years in some high school classes. Not only do students differ greatly in their general reading ability, they also differ markedly in their patterns of reading skills development. To meet the reading needs of students, secondary schools are attempting to individualize reading classes in a variety of ways.

How can high school classes be individualized most effectively? There is no pat answer. Each high school is unique. Because a method for individualizing has been successful in one school does not insure its success in another. Planning for sound, workable individualization must include first, a study of possible approaches; secondly, analysis of the many factors influencing reading instruction in each high school; and finally, evaluation of approaches in terms of factors to determine the most effective method. Each of these three aspects of individualizing will be discussed briefly in this paper.

Approaches to Individualizing Instruction

Of the many means for individualizing reading instruction, three seem to appear most frequently in reports of secondary school reading programs.

In schools using what is known as the individualized reading method, each student selects a book he wishes to read and progresses through it at his own pace. When he has completed the book, or a section of it, he and the teacher hold a conference. Through this discussion the teacher determines the student's ability to comprehend and interpret what he has read; she discovers difficulties he may have encountered; and she plans the follow-up activities he needs. This method requires an extensive library collection suited to the range in interests and reading abilities of the students involved.

A second approach in which students work on an individual basis makes use of commercially prepared programs such as the multi-level kits and programed materials on the market today. After the teacher has ascertained each student's instructional reading level, she determines the point at which he should begin in a sequence of reading activities in the kit. When he finishes one block of work he moves to another, working at a pace comfortable for him. The teacher is free to help individuals while the rest of the class is working independently. Generally kits and other commercial programs are intended to be quite comprehensive, eliminating the need for extensive supplementary reading material.

The third method is an approach toward individualization through grouping. Frequently classes are organized on the basis of instructional reading levels, narrowing the range of reading abilities with which a teacher is working at a given time. While the teacher is working with one group, other groups are studying independently. Each group has its own reading materials geared to its instructional needs. Generally these reading materials include textbooks, workbooks, and teacher-created exercises and activities.

Factors Influencing High School Reading Instruction

A great many factors influence secondary school reading instruction—some related to students, some to teachers, and some to the school situation itself. Analysis of such factors in each high school is necessary to sound planning for individualizing reading classes. A brief discussion of a few of these many factors follows.

One factor pertaining to the student is

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the wide range of individual differences found in many high school classes. As has been mentioned previously, the range in reading levels for a given group can be more than eight years. Individual reading profiles are amazingly different. Reading interests are extremely varied. Students' reactions toward school, and especially toward reading, range from enthusiasm to antagonism. By the time students have reached senior high school, they vary greatly in self-motivation, self-discipline, and ability to work independently.

A second factor, included because it is often ignored in planning for instruction, is the pressure which lack of time imposes on many high school students today. They and their teachers are concerned that their achievement in high school be such that they can enter the colleges of their choice. Such students are frequently overburdened with assignments. When one adds the hours spent in home, school, church, and community activities, it is easy to see that many young people do not have time for extensive reading. High schools which do not take into account factors such as these are not planning realistically.

Of the many factors pertaining to teachers, one of the most important to consider is the range in training, teaching ability, and personal attributes found among teachers. As aware as we are of individual differences among students, we often fail to take into account individual differences among teachers. They vary decidely in the extent of their preparation for teaching reading. They vary in their familiarity with adolescent and adult books. Some have acquired comprehensive knowledge of literature for all age levels. Others are very limited in their knowledge of books. Teachers also differ in the way they communicate with young people. Some seem able to motivate students with but a word or a glance. Others find it difficult to help students realistically face and attack learning problems. Realistic planning for individualizing high school reading classes demands consideration of the varied training, abilities, and interests of the teachers involved.

One determining factor related to the school situation itself is the pupil-teacher ratio. In schools where reading instruction is provided only for the seriously disabled readers, classes tend to be limited to five or less students per class period. In some schools reading instruction is limited to those students not reading at expected achievement levels. Classes usually range from ten to twenty students per class period. In those schools where reading instruction is provided for all students, most frequently in their English classes, teachers meet daily with five classes of thirty to thirty-five students. Teachers who have five or less students per class period are not handicapped by number of students; teachers with ten to twenty students begin to feel pressure; and teachers with thirty to thirty-five students are forced to select the method that provides the most efficient use of class time.

Cost is another factor to consider. Many reading departments are operating on limited budgets. School personnel must weigh the values of various approaches to individualizing against the expense involved in each. Some high schools provide released time for reading teachers. Some employ resource personnel such as reading consultants to give assistance to reading teachers. The extent to which high schools can provide these helpful services is often dependent upon the size of the budget for materials and equipment. Secondary schools should carefully weigh the cost factor when planning how to individualize reading classes.

Selecting a Plan for Individualizing Reading Instruction

How one school decided on a plan for individualizing will be described briefly to illustrate the way in which various approaches to individualizing can be weighed in terms of factors influencing instruction.

In their initial study of the individualized reading method, teachers in one school were especially impressed with the motivation inherent in self-interest and self-selection. This method appeared to be a good answer to the range of individual differences within their classes. However, when they analyzed individualized reading in terms of factors influencing instruction in their high school, questions arose. Would their students select the kind of books that would stimulate development of reading skills and abilities? Would it be necessary for teachers to plan a great many supplementary activities to meet the individual needs of students, especially those with serious problems? Would high school students have the time to read so extensively as to develop needed skills and abilities? Might instruction directed toward development of specific skills and abilities be more efficient use of student time?

From their own point of view, these teachers realistically faced the fact that none of them had the comprehensive knowledge of books that they felt the individualized reading method demanded.

Teachers raised questions involving the pupil-teacher ratio. In their school, reading instruction was to be provided for all students. Class size ranged from twenty to thirty-five, depending upon the ability level of students. Would so much class time be spent in conferences that teachers would be limited in the help they could give students with reading problems? How could they find time to plan, prepare, and supervise the follow-up activities designed to meet specific needs? The individualized reading method was evaluated in terms of the cost factor. Results from preliminary diagnostic measures in their classes had indicated a range in reading ability from third grade to college levels. Student interests were equally varied. The book collection in their school would have to be substantially increased at considerable expense to meet the wide range in interests and reading abilities if the individualized reading method were used.

In their examination of a multi-level reading kit for the secondary level, teachers found a direct approach to development of reading skills and abilities. A student could work at his own pace in materials suited to his level of reading ability. Further analysis led teachers to question how well such materials would meet an individual student's particular needs and interests. Might students be working in activities planned for a certain instructional level at the expense of activities to answer specific, individual needs? Might there be problems in motivation? Might students reject the idea of being assigned simple, easy-to-read materials of no special interest to them?

From their own point of view, teachers were initially impressed by the ease with which relatively untrained teachers could provide reading instruction for their classes, using such materials. However, as they studied the materials in relationship to the many skills and abilities to be developed, they realized that supplementary materials would be needed for skills development not emphasized in the kit. This possibility lessened the advantage of ease in using such materials. Teachers questioned how frequently they could evaluate each student's progress and plan the supplementary activities he needed. Kits appeared to be the least costly approach to individualizing. The same materials could be used by different students during each class period of the day. However, if teachers added supplementary textbooks, workbooks, or similar materials to meet needs not adequately provided for by the kits, initial costs would be substantially increased.

In their study of grouping by instructional reading levels, teachers learned that this approach was primarily a plan of organization, providing neither materials nor method upon which to base individualization. Looking at grouping from the student point of view, teachers realized the necessity for careful planning to avoid having students work at certain instructional reading levels at the expense of activities to answer specific, individual needs. Teachers questioned whether grouping might present problems in motivation, in helping students accept the need for instruction at assigned levels.

Teachers considered whether they had the abilities needed to cope with some of the problems in using the grouping approach. Selecting and becoming familiar with a wide range of materials would present one problem, organizing their classes, another. Into how many groups would they divide each class? How could activities be organized so that the teacher could work directly with one group while other groups proceeded independently? How much individual help could be given within each group? In their study of the cost factor, teachers learned that expense is often reduced when classes are grouped because usually only one group in a class uses a certain type of material at a given time. Therefore, lim-

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ited quantities of materials need to be provided. Also, in this approach to individualizing, textbooks are frequently supplemented by a variety of workbooks, less costly than many types of reading materials.

The preceding discussion can only suggest the many factors considered, the pertinent questions raised as teachers studied and evaluated approaches to individualizing. Finally they arrived at a decision—to use the grouping approach to individualizing their reading classes.

What this school decided is relatively unimportant. Other schools making a similar study might very likely have selected a different method. How the decision was reached is significant. Teachers did not choose their approach to individualizing because they had observed its effectiveness in another school. They did not allow glowing reports by supporters of various plans to convince them that such plans were the only ways to provide for individual differences. High schools which weigh the advantages and disadvantages of possible approaches to individualizing, in terms of their own situation, are planning realistically and soundly. The decision they reach should lead to effective individualizing of their reading classes.

D. SENIOR HIGH LEVEL

(23)

1. Organization Based on Appraisal

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WHEN I think of the way reading is being taught in secondary schools in the United States, I am reminded of the story about the old man who sat on the bottom step of his back porch, fishing in a mud puddle. A man walked by and said, "You're wasting your time. Don't you know there aren't any fish in that mud puddle?"

The old man said, "Yes, but it's so *convenient*."

Perhaps high school teachers have been organizing their classrooms for their convenience rather than for the needs of their students.

I insist that right now we should open our eyes to the facts: All students do *not* come to high school with adequate reading levels. All students have different *levels of ability, different* interests, and different needs.

The majority of teachers are in the profession because they are dedicated and because they have known the joy of studying and learning encountered in their teacher training. Anyone who had difficulty in academic subjects would have changed his course and chosen another vocation. As a result, teachers in secondary schools are often intellectually gifted and have broad backgrounds in their subject matter. What patience do they have with the faltering, stumbling adolescent whose brain power may be limited and academic needs no more extensive than those preparing him to drive a truck, dig a ditch, or fix a carburetor? Then, too, how well do such teachers understand the limitless mental capacity, inquiring mind, ceaseless search for answers that drive the truly gifted child? Do they understand the abilities of the future ribbon clerk, the super market checker, the clothes salesman, or the plant foreman—those students which comprise two-thirds of any average classroom?

Which is which? Who needs what method, which materials, what textbook? These are the challenges which must be met *now*.

In assessing the abilities of the students in a high school classroom, it is imperative that teachers answer the critical question: Can the students read the assigned texts with sufficient understanding?

All textbooks do have a fairly reliable reading level determined by the publishers, but just because the text has been designed for a student in a specific grade is *no* assurance that any particular student in a given classroom is equipped to comprehend the vocabulary, the concepts and the ideas of the author. A good reading test, however, will help to determine which students are capable of such comprehension and which need to be challenged with difficult material.

While various good reading tests are available, their *indiscriminate* use will not reveal the information sought. High school teachers need to know the advantages and weaknesses of various reading tests and how to interpret test results. Standardized test scores are too often assumed to be perfectly reliable. A test score is best interpreted as a good *estimate* of the general level of performance. It will vary from test to test and from time to time.

Test norms are scores which tell the level of performance attained by an average of typical groups. Standards represent "human judgment" of what the level of performance supposedly should be. If a test score represents typical performance, then, of necessity, half the pupils in an average group will have scores at or below the average score. If 40 per cent are below grade level, a teacher should be congratulated. In the "norm" group, 50 per cent of all the students will be at or below grade level. For all pupils to be at grade level is impossible.

Teachers *cannot* assume that a particular reading score or series of scores will predict success or failure with unfailing accuracy. It will, rather, reveal only the "odds." To allow test scores to outweigh all other judgments is as serious a misuse of scores as to ignore them in favor of all other judgments.

Standardized test scores will permit the teacher to determine areas of strength or weakness in which the student is faltering or growing.

Standardized test scores will compare the reading abilities of students in a given school with those of students elsewhere. They do *not* assess the whole reading complex and probably never will. No test designed to date can measure attitude toward reading, a paramount concern. It must also be remembered that standardized tests tend to measure general reading ability, not specific reading abilities.

Grade scores on standardized tests tend to place a child on a level too high for his ability. For this reason high school teachers should be prepared to administer oral reading inventories which reveal what grade level text may be used for instructional purposes and the approximate level at which material becomes too difficult. Such inventories may also be used to determine the level at which material may be read with ease. Knowledge of these levels is imperative if a student is expected to do outside reading for his own pleasure.

A graded series of literature books, science or social studies texts, can be used to ascertain basic reading levels in the content areas.

To determine a student's *instructional level,* the level at which a student can profit from texts intended for his grade, the following informal testing score must be obtained:

Word Recognition	90-95 per cent
Comprehension	75 per cent

The teacher should select a passage of 100 words or more and have the student read it orally. If no more than one or two out of ten words is unknown to him, the text is not too difficult from the standpoint of word-recognition. If he misses more than this number, the teacher should select a text from the next lower grade level. This procedure is continued until the criterion of 95 per cent word-recognition is met.

The teacher must then satisfy the requirement of 75 per cent comprehension. A second selection is chosen and the student reads it silently. The teacher gives the student some introduction to it, so he can read the material with greater understanding. The teacher prepares questions related to specificially stated information from the text as well as questions related to implied information. The student must score 75 per cent in order to meet the demands of instructional level.

Besides standardized tests and informal inventories, cumulative records can reveal particularly valuable information. In most schools records, containing group tests scores as well as significant incidents that may have had some bearing upon his school achievement, are kept from the time the child enters kindergarten.

In appraising students' reading needs one of the most important methods is teacher observation. These may never be recorded, but what has been observed in the classroom setting is vital in helping the student.

Once reading levels for instructional materials have been determined, the teacher must attend to individualizing instruction as much as possible in the confines of a secondary classroom. Since students are large and furniture sometimes stationary, mobility may be impossible. However, some type of grouping on the basis of reading levels and needs is *mandatory.*

Some schools have tried individualized reading programs, in which every student is engaged in reading a book on his instructional level. The teacher guides the selection of books, but does not dictate their choice. Sometimes students are treated as a class, and books are discussed and shared. More often, however, each student reads independently and holds conferences with the teacher to discuss the author and his work. The teacher poses questions that probe beneath the surface of the selection and initiates follow-up activities.

Another practical plan for grouping at the high school level is within the classroom itself. It is suggested that teachers divide the class into two groups, according to reading levels, and give independent work to one group while instructing the second group at its reading level.

A form of the Joplin Plan of grouping can be utilized, too. Students can be grouped on the basis of reading levels and assigned to several sections in reading, all of which meet at the same time. Grade level lines disappear, and each reading section is assigned students whose reading ability falls within a given range.

Team learning can also be utilized. This is a plan in which two or three students with similar needs are organized as teams to work together and help each other. The teacher moves from group to group assisting each team.

In conclusion we might say that teachers should plan instruction after appraising achievement scores, intelligence scores, informal inventories, cumulative records, and classroom observations. Then they should take a good look at successful grouping plans which have been going on in schools for decades, select one, and adapt it to the high school situation. High school teachers must teach reading to students instead of teaching books.

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3. In Secondary Schools

a. Through Organizational Practices

John J. DeBoer

If Illinois is a reliable example of the country as a whole, as I think it is, the great majority of American secondary schools feel the need for a program in remedial reading, but only a small percentage have taken steps to initiate such a program. In a statewide study just completed, Loren Grissom found that 90 per cent of the schools responding believed they needed remedial reading programs, but only 17 per cent reported that they had even begun to develop one. After all the discussions in books and magazines and at conferences in which the need for attention to reading in secondary schools has been demonstrated, most American high schools are still, in effect, ignoring the problem of reading retardation. Moreover, the great majority of high schools which have no remedial reading program at present have no plans to initiate one in the future.

Most of the schools which have no remedial reading program reported that special attention is given to reading in regular English classes, and one third of all schools responding reported that they give attention to the reading problem in regular classes other than English. Inasmuch as reading is the basic tool in both English and non-English classes, it is fair to assume that some kind of reading instruction occurs throughout the school. However, it seems clear from the responses that the teaching of reading is receiving significant and systematic attention is not more than one of five high schools in this country. The idea that the systematic teaching of reading is a process that should continue throughout the elementary and the high school, so long and so widely advocated in the literature, has not yet been generally applied.

However, a favorable trend may be discerned. Fifteen percent of schools not now carrying on a formal program in reading are making plans to do so, and among the large high schools in this group, one half are making such plans. Moreover, of those high schools which now have reading improvement programs, fully one-fifth introduced them during the current year, one-third of the programs have been in operation for two years or less, and almost one-half have been in operation for four years or less. It seems clear that the movement is mushrooming. It takes a long time for an educational idea to find widespread application in the schools, but when it does, it often takes hold rapidly. We seem to be witnessing such a phenomenon in the case of reading in the high school.

The oldest, most carefully planned, and probably the most efficient programs are found in the large high schools. Many reasons account for this fact. The large high schools are able to attract teachers who have training in remedial reading (although even they have great difficulty in securing qualified teachers). They are able to supply the necessary materials, equipment, and space for an effective program. And, most of all, their school population is large enough to permit various kinds of grouping without adding prohibitively to the per pupil cost of instruction. The recent report by James B. Conant on American secondary schools[1] advocated the elimination of very small high schools. The wisdom of this recommendation is borne out by Grissom's findings with respect to the teaching of reading.

The Problem of Grouping

Under present conditions, some kind of grouping seems inevitable in any form of organization for the improvement of reading. It has been cogently argued that grouping does not eliminate the problem of individual differences; that special reading needs exist among pupils of all ability levels; that even when pupils of the same reading grade level are grouped together the *nature* of the individual reading problems is as diverse as ever.

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[1] James B. Conant, *The American High School Today: A First Report to Interested Citizens.* New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1951.

Certainly there is danger that a teacher of an "ability-grouped" class may assume that the problem has been disposed of, and that uniform materials and methods may safely be employed. Nevertheless, it seems clear that for a long time to come the conditions of teaching in the heterogeneous class will not permit adequate attention to the individual needs of all high school students.

This is not to say that a general sytem of ability grouping is desirable. It is not within the scope of this paper to discuss the issue of homogeneous grouping. It means merely that in most situations the reading guidance given in regular classes must be supplemented by special classes in reading for those whose needs cannot be adequately met in the regular classes. The organization of special reading classes does not minimize the importance of providing for individual differences in all classes in all areas where reading takes place.

Special reading classes are needed for those students who are sufficiently retarded in reading to be unable to participate to any reasonable degree in the activities and discussions of regular classes. In high school these would usually include pupils with reading ability below the fifth grade level. Special reading classes, conducted perhaps on a voluntary basis, are needed also for students of average or above-average ability who wish to improve in comprehension or speed.

Individualization in Regular Classes

I believe we shall not achieve any real breakthrough in our struggle with the reading problem until we have succeeded in doing something about the regimentation still prevalent in many classes in the subject fields, and until we have achieved a better understanding of the role of the textbook. At the present time the remedial reading program is occupied to a considerable extent with repairing the damage done in the content fields in the middle grades and the junior and senior high school years. The accumulated frustration or boredom caused by uniform reading requirements in textbooks, however brilliantly written and attractively manufactured, must certainly account for many reading casualties.

The role that the textbook should play will of course vary widely from subject to subject. It would be difficult to think of conducting classes in mathematics and advanced sciences without a textbook as a basic instructional tool. In history, on the other hand, it would seem that extensive reading at the individual's own level, in the many books available, should constitute the core of the reading, while the textbook should serve as a valuable reference and perhaps provide the general framework within which the reading takes place. Wide reading would then become central, the textbook important but supplementary. In this plan unit organization replaces the dominance of the textbook.

Achieving such individualization in the content fields will require more than sincere but usually futile exhortations, "Every teacher should be a teacher of reading." It calls for a schoolwide strategy, a plan devised, under aggressive administrative leadership, by committees of teachers representing all the major fields.

The Illinois Study

The Illinois study previously referred to illustrates the wide diversity of policy and practice in American secondary schools with respect to the reading program. One of the first questions that must be answered in the organization of a reading program has to do with the criteria employed to determine who are the "retarded" readers. Some Illinois high schools select for remedial instruction those pupils who reveal a discrepancy between scores on intelligence tests and reading tests; others select, at the ninth grade, those pupils whose reading scores fall between grades 6.5 and 7.5; still others include in remedial reading groups all those who score below certain percentiles, usually the 30th percentile or lower. Some high schools regard as remedial cases those pupils who score two years below grade level.

Among the sources of information employed by schools in determining who should receive special help, by far the most frequent in all enrollment categories are the following four: (1) scores on standardized reading tests; (2) recommendations of teachers and counselors; (3) scores on achievement tests; and (4) scores on tests of mental abiltiy. Other sources include (1) academic achievement; (2) the recommendation of parents; (3) the requests of students themselves; (4) information from cumulative records; (5) teachers' estimates of students' personal adjustment; and (6) the results of oral reading tests. No doubt, in most instances, a combination of these sources was employed.

In the determination of what constitutes reading retardation, the school faces a dilemma. Obviously a pupil who reads two or more years below grade level but who is reading up to his full potential can not be considered a retarded reader or an "under-achiever." On the other hand, discovering a pupil's *reading* potential is a difficult task. Verbal intelligence tests involve reading ability and therefore may not accurately reveal a pupil's reading potential. Non-verbal intelligence tests may be misleading if reading is a special ability. The "organismic age" index, advocated by Willard C. Olson, cannot readily be used with large school populations. Quite possibly the older practice of simply using grade level as a criterion may be the most practical after all.

The problem of reading retardation in the high school has created the need for teachers who have special competence and special interest in reading instruction. Such teachers are still hard to find. The Illinois study reflects the difficulty which administrators encounter in securing teachers who have had some training in the field of remedial reading. Thus only about one half of the teachers assigned to reading groups have had a college course in the teaching of reading. Although some others have attended reading conferences and workshops, a relatively small percentage of reading teachers have had formal preparation for their work. Most of the teachers assigned to reading classes get their training on the job. If they are alert and interested, and if they take advantage of the many new materials and teaching aids which are rapidly becoming available, they are no doubt performing very well. We are all familiar with teachers who have had no formal preparation in reading but who demonstrate genuine expertness in dealing with the reading problem. Nevertheless, the need for teacher education in this field remains one of the major concerns of colleges and universities.

One of the more interesting findings of the Illinois study has to do with the part that the students themselves and their parents play in the selection of members of remedial reading classes. Two-thirds of Illinois high schools which offer special help in reading give consideration to the wishes of the students and their parents. We may be encouraged by the concern our clients have about the reading problem.

Standardized tests of reading are the principal means of selecting students for special reading classes. Most popular among these are: The Iowa Silent Reading Test, the Gates Silent Reading Test, the Stanford Achievement Test, the Science Research Associates Reading Test, the California Reading Test, and the Diagnostic Reading Test. The Gray Oral Reading Test is employed by a number of high schools. Other excellent reading tests are used by high schools in the various size categories. Tests of reading ability and of mental ability are given once a year in most high schools, but more often in nearly one-third of the high schools responding.

Practices vary widely as to the time when the various reading tests and standardized tests are given. In about one-third of the cases, tests are administered at the end of the eighth grade; in two-thirds of the high schools reporting a reading program, they are given at the end of the ninth grade. Nearly one in five of the high schools give regular tests in all grades. Here again we find the larger high schools making by far the greatest use of standardized tests.

In more than half the cases the test results are made available to all teachers. In other instances they are used by guidance counselors, remedial reading teachers, and teachers of English.

Remedial instruction in many schools extends to one or two semesters, most commonly in ability-grouped English classes at the beginning high school levels. In some schools the duration of the instruction is determined by the individual student's progress, and in a few schools it is possible for a student to receive spe-

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cial reading instruction throughout his high school career. Most remedial reading classes meet daily in class periods ranging from one-half to one hour. Enrollment in reading classes is generally compulsory, although especially the larger high schools tend also to offer work in voluntary classes. The number of students in any one school receiving any kind of remedial assistance falls far short of the estimated number of those who need it.

Class size is a factor of special importance in remedial reading. Clearly the nature of the problem calls for sharp limitation of the number of students in any one class. The range in Illinois appears to be from eleven to twenty-five students, with about three-fourths of the schools reporting twenty students per class or less.

By far the greater number of schools in all size categories extend academic credit for work in remedial reading classes.

Although newspapers and magazines are used in many remedial reading classes, they appear to be only incidental to the program. It would appear that more extensive use could profitably be made of these tools with retarded readers. More encouraging, however, is the report that "high interest" books rank at the top of the list of remedial procedures employed. Incidentally, the formal book report is still required in more than half of the high schools reporting. In a similar proportion of the schools students keep cumulative records of their "interest" reading. In nearly all cases (more than 80 per cent), class time is allowed for "interest" reading; while nearly 60 per cent make free reading materials available in the remedial reading classrooms.

In about 80 per cent of the high schools conducting remedial reading programs, systematic efforts are made to involve the entire staff in the project. These efforts take various forms. Most common is the formation of workshops, conferences, and study groups. Distribution of reading scores to all teachers, giving special attention to vocabulary and technical reading skills in each subject, participation by teacher committees in the selection of students for special classes and encouragement of "outside" reading in all classes are other examples.

Proposals for a Reading Program

Although any program for the improvement of reading should be tailored to the needs of the individual school, certain general proposals may be made as goals that are applicable to any situation when the necessary conditions are present. The following proposals may be regarded as ideals, because they imply a minimum high school size of 200 or 300 pupils, and the availability of sufficient funds for an adequate program. The fact that an exploding school population, an acute shortage of teachers, and inadequate revenues are likely to prevent us from achieving these ideals does not eliminate the necessity of setting goals toward which to strive.

1. Class size should be limited to 20 or 25 pupils in all areas in which reading is a major activity. This proposal need not be in contradiction to plans now under discussion in various quarters to group pupils flexibly, using very large classes for lectures, audio-visual aids, and any activities involving only looking and listening, small groups for other activities, and purely individual work for still others. Such flexibility would seem to be both efficient and economical. The important consideration is that small group and individual work is essential when silent reading is involved.

2. Provision should be made systematically for some individual instruction in all classes. Such provision should be made even when a plan of ability grouping is in effect. Classes under any system usually include a range of several years in reading ability, and in any case the specific needs of individual students with identical scores always vary widely. It is of the greatest urgency that the dominance of the uniform textbook in social studies, science, and other courses be sharply reduced.

3. Remedial classes should be organized for extremely retarded readers. Assignment should be made only in the case of students who do not or cannot make satisfactory progress under ordinary instructional conditions in the regular classroom. Academic credit should be extended for work done in remedial reading classes, but the student's record should

indicate clearly his general level of performance in reading. Remedial reading classes may be taken either in lieu of or in addition to regular class work in English, as may seem desirable in individual cases, but a student should in any case be returned to regular English sections as soon as he shows signs of significant progress.

4. Voluntary classes should be established for all students desiring to improve themselves in rate or comprehension, regardless of their level of performance. These classes should be in addition to a student's regular courses, and probably should be without credit. Enrollment should be voluntary, but attendance should be required for as long a period as the instructor deems desirable, usually not less than a full semester.

5. In large high schools clinical facilities should be made available to those students who do not respond to instruction in remedial classes. Clinics should be staffed with one or more trained psychologists and should have access to the services of medical and other specialists. They should of course be equipped with the necessary diagnostic and training equipment.

6. No school program in reading can be fully successful without the support of the parents and the constituency of the school. Methods of communicating with parents of individual pupils and with the general public should be devised by administrators and teacher committees, in consultation with representatives of parent groups.

Like most improvements in educational service, effective reading programs are costly. Smaller classes, appropriate teaching materials, and enriched library resources require adequate financing. The public must be made to understand that if it places a high valuation on reading skills for the children of the community, it has not only the right to demand the best in teaching methods, but also the obligation to support school programs generously. In the end, the question resolves itself into one of social values. The public must decide whether it is willing to give an equal place to education along with material comforts and luxuries.

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2. A Comparative Study of Individualized and Group Reading Instruction with Tenth Grade Underachievers in Reading

LAWRENCE GOLD

By far the greatest application of individualized reading instruction has been on the elementary school level. The present study was conceived to parallel as closely as possible the theory and practice of individualized reading on the elementary school level, but to apply this type of reading instruction to underachievers in reading at the tenth grade level. The study was initiated some three years ago, and completed last year, as a doctoral dissertation under the sponsorship of Dr. Nila B. Smith of the School of Education of New York University.

The major purpose of the study was to investigate and compare the effectiveness of group and of individualized reading instruction, respectively, for the improvement of reading achievement of underachievers in reading at the tenth grade level. A related aspect of this study was the evaluation of the effectiveness of these programs for improvement in personality adjustment and level of self-perceived reading problems and needs.

The subjects were selected from the tenth grade of the Garden City High School, a suburban school within commuting distance of New York City. The investigator served as the reading specialist in the high school.

The initial step was to apply the Nelson-Denny Reading Test[1] (revised edition) to some four hundred students who comprised the total tenth grade population. The experimental population consisted of forty students who scored in the lowest quartile of their tenth grade population, as well as below the 50th percentile in comparison to the national norm. The Henmon-Nelson Test of Mental Ability[2] (revised edition), was utilized to identify subjects who were underachievers in reading. The range of underachievement in reading, as determined by a comparison of a subject's reading-age and mental-age equivalents, was from one month to more than seven years.

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[1] M. J. Nelson and E. C. Denny. The Nelson-Denny Reading Test, Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, 1960.

[2] T. A. Lamke and M. J. Nelson. The Henmon-Nelson Tests of Mental Ability, Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, 1957.

The relationship between reading disability and personality maladjustment is generally acknowledged. This relationship is perhaps especially strong among adolescents who are underachieving in reading. These students have known considerable academic failure. They may also have been exposed to reading improvement programs in the past, with varying degrees of success. Their self-concept becomes increasingly damaged as they compare their rate of achievement with that of the peer group.

In order to measure any possible improvement in personality adjustment and level of self-concept, several instruments were utilized. The SRA Youth Inventory,[3] and the "Reading Problems Inventory," an instrument developed by the investigator to measure the level of self-perceived reading problems and needs, were applied to pupils in both groups before and after treatment.

The *IR* group, which received individualized instruction, and the *GR* group, which received group reading instruction, were equated statistically at the outset of instruction.

For instructional purposes each group was subdivided into three sections of approximately equal size (from six to eight subjects). Each section received instruction on two alternate days, during periods normally used by the pupils for study. A total of twenty sessions was given to each section, during a time span of approximately three months. The investigator served as the instructor for both the *IR* and *GR* programs.

Instructional Programs

The program of instruction of the *IR* group was based, wherever possible, upon the principles of seeking behavior, self-selection, and pacing, as formulated by Olson.[4] Each student was informed of the skills which were most in need of attention. The available instructional materials were demonstrated at various times throughout the course of instruction, usually at the beginning of the session. The student was encouraged to select exercises which he felt would be of most value to him. A record was kept by each student, indicating the material used, his evaluation of the contents, and his scores, if any.

Individual conferences with the investigator were an integral part of each session. These consisted of instruction in particular skills, recommendations for future activities, or discussions relative to academic problems. The investigator kept a record of each conference. An average of three students was seen for individual instruction during each session, for periods of time ranging from five to fifteen minutes per pupil. The classroom atmosphere was relatively permissive.

The program offered the *GR* group was more traditional. The investigator offered instruction based upon the needs of the group as a whole. All subjects were engaged in a similar activity at the same time. Group motivation was used wherever possible. The classroom atmosphere was relatively permissive, although the reading activities were structured and varied. The areas which received emphasis were comprehension, vocabulary development, study skills, and rate of reading. No mechanical equipment was used with either program.

Results

At the completion of the experimental period, each group was again evaluated for the variables of reading, personality adjustment, and level of self-perceived reading problems and needs. The "t" test for correlated means and the technique of analysis of covariance was applied appropriately to the data to determine the statistical significance of improvement.

Individualized and group reading programs, respectively, produced significant improvement in total reading achievement, reading vocabulary, and reading comprehension. Only the *GR* plan resulted in significant improvement in rate of reading. The *IR* plan tended, however, to promote growth in this area. There was no significant difference *between* the groups for these variables, except that the *GR* group was significantly superior for rate of reading.

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[3] H. H. Remmers and B. Shimberg. SRA Youth Inventory, Form S, Science Research Associates, Chicago, 1960.

[4] W. C. Olson. *Child Development* (second edition), Boston: D. C. Heath and Co., 1959, pp. 401-408.

Each group made significant gains in certain areas of personality adjustment. An interesting finding was that each program manifested significant growth in the same areas—My School and After High School. There was no significant difference *between* the groups for improvement of personality adjustment.

Each group made significant improvement in level of self-perceived reading problems and needs. Neither program was more effective for promoting significant improvement in reading ability as evaluated by the subjects themselves.

A "Course Evaluation Sheet" was filled in by each subject at the conclusion of the instructional period. Subjects in the *IR* plan tended to approve of more aspects of instruction and tended to do more independent reading (at home or in study) in all types of material.

The results of the study suggest that the individualized plan of instruction may be usefully applied to underachievers in reading at the high school level. Furthermore, there does not appear to be any decisive advantage for this plan in contrast to the more commonly applied *GR* plan.

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2. Methods of Differentiating Instruction at the Senior High School Level

ROBERT KARLIN

AN EXAMINATION of reading achievement test scores for any grade in senior high school reveals marked differences in levels of attainment. A range of as much as eight years between the achievement levels of the poorest and best readers in the grade is not atypical. Not only are there differences in reading achievement levels within a grade but also differences in skill development.

The problem of how to meet the differences that exist among pupils in a given grade or class is one for which no perfect solution has been found. And there has been some confusion over the means of providing for individual differences in teaching reading. The issues involved deal more with organization than they do with methodology. Instead of all pupils reading the same selections, learning the same skills, or doing identical exercises, there is some variation in the instructional program to meet some of their differences in reading ability.

Individualization in Reading Instruction

Theoretically, at least, individual instruction might be a preferred means of providing for differences in learning ability and achievement. Practical considerations, such as limitations of time and resources, have led many educators to advocate a combination of individual and group instruction as a means of meeting individual differences.

Individualized Reading. There is a strong movement in some quarters toward complete or almost complete individualization of reading instruction. Individualized reading is based upon the principles of self-interest, self-selection, and self-pacing. These principles are translated through an organizational pattern in which each pupil is taught reading on an individual basis.

From a large selection of books that are provided in the classroom each pupil selects one for personal reading. Novels, short stories, biographies, non-fiction,

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poetry and plays would be represented. Books would be selected also on the basis of the students' reading ability.

There are times during which the students are treated as a class. In these sessions books may be introduced to them by the teacher or persons who have read them. The teacher may use this time to teach a reading skill in which a number of students is deficient. He may devote the group sessions to any reading activity which calls for group participation.

One feature of individualized reading is the conference which each student holds with the teacher upon completion of a selection or book. It is during this conference that the teacher is able to become acquainted with the student's reading ability and reading tastes. Teacher and student may discuss the author and his work. Selected portions may be read orally by the student. Answers to questions which probe beneath the surface of the selection may be sought. Follow-up activities related to the reading may be advanced. The teacher may deal with some specific difficulties which the student experiences while reading independently or working with him. If other students were known to have similar problems, the teacher might delay instruction until a time when a group could be assembled.

Differentiated Assignment. Differentiation of assignments in reading textbooks and other materials has been suggested to teachers of all instructional levels as a means of meeting individual differences. Thus, all students in the group might read the same selection but would not be expected to attain the same levels of understanding from it. Poorer readers might be held responsible for literal meanings while superior readers would respond to greater demands. Assignment of different portions from the same selection is another form of differentiation. Contributions would be made in accordance with the students' ability to respond to the assigned material.

There are textbooks which represent different levels of reading difficulty, and students who are studying specialized topics in science or social studies may obtain information about them from these sources. The use of diversified materials as well as participation in a variety of activities are ways by which differences in reading ability may be met. The laboratory approach in which learning occurs through planning, reading, writing, and sharing and in which each student makes his contribution to group effort is conducive to this diversification.

Multi-level Materials. Some senior high schools have established reading programs which are individualistic in nature. These programs rely almost entirely upon commercially-available materials which are graded in difficulty and whose content covers different aspects of reading. These materials are designed to permit students to work independently at their own rate and level.

Each of these programs is designed to be used with a minimum of teacher participation. In fact, there is little for the teacher to do except in cases where students are having difficulty performing the tasks assigned to them. It is my opinion, however, that these materials in their present form can be used more effectively as *practice* exercises after the teacher has taught the skills than as instructional lessons. No amount of practice in reading situations where difficulties are present can replace the guidance needed for learning new responses to them.

It may be entirely feasible to develop materials for teaching some reading skills in such a way as to reduce or obviate the need for a teacher's guidance. Although there are no carefully tested programed materials in reading at this time, one organization is offering experimental programed units in contextual clues, phonics, structural analysis, comprehension skills, and vocabulary building. Other organizations are in the process of preparing programed reading materials which seem to have some promise.

Grouping for Reading Instruction

Grouping for instruction is not a perfect means of dealing with differences in reading ability. It is an administratve device which permits the teacher to provide for differences in ways that would be impossible if the class were typically organized for teaching.

However, grouping for instruction merely to have students work in groups is hardly justification for conducting such a program. Students who learn poor work habits and participate in unproductive learning activities while working in groups would be better off as a class unit under the direct supervision of the teacher.

Intra-Class Grouping. Group instruction in reading may be organized on the basis of the pupils' instructional levels, their specific reading weaknesses or a combination of these. Many teachers who have had little experience with grouping within a single class find that group instruction proceeds more smoothly for them if it is organized around instructional levels rather than reading weaknesses. Pupils have common needs that can be met in this way.

The limits that are placed upon the number of reading groups within a class are governed by the ability of the teacher. It is obvious that the more numerous the groups the closer may the teacher approach the pupils' reading needs. However, the demands of good group teaching are such that it is unrealistic to expect all teachers to plan for and instruct a large number of groups.

Team learning has been tried in the intermediate grades with some degree of success. In team learning small groups of two or three pupils are organized on the basis of reading ability. After the teacher has taught a lesson the members of the team work together on materials that have been prepared for them. Although the teacher is available to work with the teams or individual members, pupils are expected to help each other with the assigned work.

Inter-Class Grouping. Some schools have been advocating a type of differentiated instruction in which several teachers participate. This pattern of organization is particularly suited to departmentalized teaching. Pupils are grouped on the basis of reading achievement and assigned to one of several sections in reading. Each reading section meets at the same time. If such a program were conducted in the senior high school, students from the ninth grade might meet for reading instruction with pupils from the tenth and twelfth grades. Grade lines disappear since pupils are assigned to reading sections according to reading ability. The effectiveness of this type of organization is increased by further grouping within each section whenever it is required.

A variation of inter-class grouping is the program in which a group of teachers form a sub-unit within the school organization. A number of pupils is assigned to the sub-unit and the participating teachers work only with them. One teacher is mainly responsible for the language arts classes in which reaching is taught, a second the science classes, a third the social studies classes, a fourth the mathematics classes. For each learning experience pupils in the sub-unit are grouped with those of similar abilities. The teachers work as a team in planning the reading activities of all the groups and integrate them into their subject areas.

The homogeneity of such sub-units is, of course, theoretical. Although the pupils of these groups have common needs that may be met by teaching them as a class, they are likely to progress more rapidly if less-gross measures are taken. Further grouping is recommended for teaching reading skills when only some members of the unit are weak.

Summary

The problems of providing for individual differences in reading is not one which teachers can easily solve. No organizational plan, no hardware, no materials alone or in combination can solve the problem for us. Awareness and dedication are the ingredients we need to mix with knowledge if we ever are going to get on top of the problem. Efforts to deal realistically with individual differences in reading at the senior high level are long overdue. Let's try to meet our boys and girls where they are and help them achieve in reading to the extent of which they are capable. We can do no less.

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2. The Formulation of Questions as an Instructional-Diagnostic Tool

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A BASIC concept of reading, which should underlie instruction at all levels, is that reading is a thought-getting process and as a thought-getting process, reading involves comprehension. To comprehend, the reader must judiciously select, organize, and relate the author's pattern of thought. To be selective, the reader must raise significant and appropriate questions relevant to the material as a basis for establishing a purpose for reading. His questions determine what he reads, how he reads, and what he gets out of his reading. In short, questions underlie and guide the reader's quest for understanding as he engages in a dialogue with the author. In this sense, then, reading is inquiry.

What, then, is the role of questions? And how are they formulated to serve their multiple purposes?

The Role of Questions

Questions function in both reading and teaching situations. In reading, questions establish a basis for identifying and clarifying a reader's purpose which influences his method of reading, the degree of comprehension, rate of reading, and the skills employed in reading. More than anything else, a reader's purpose influences what he reads and how he reads.

In instructional situations, the role of questions is by far the most influential single teaching act. According to Taba, "A focus set by the teacher's questions circumscribes the mental operations which students can perform, determines what points they can explore, and what modes of thought they can learn."[1] Moreover, students' concept of reading is largely influenced by the types of questions asked by teachers. For these reasons questions play a crucial role in affecting the level of the teaching and reading process. Yet there is little evidence to suggest that teachers are well prepared in the formulation and analysis of fruitful questions as a diagnostic and instructional tool.

For example, in examining 17 newly published or recently revised professional reading textbooks, only four of them identified the topic of questions in either the table of contents or the index. Even here, however, the treatment of questions was rather brief and superficial, with a four- or five-paragraph descriptive and prescriptive discussion rather than analytically with appropriate application. Perhaps in our textbooks too much attention is paid to the content of reading instruction to the neglect of how teachers teach reading.

If teachers are not competently trained in the formulation and use of questions, it is not surprising to find that investigators of teachers' use of questions report that they were found to ask regularly 150 questions per class hour.[2] Findings of this kind clearly suggest that the quality of teaching in these situations is at the level of memory of facts and details. Such an emphasis encourages students to read with a mind set to memorize as many isolated details as possible. Unfortunately, even our most able readers reflect a detail-oriented concept of reading which largely results from the types of questions they have encountered in the classroom. In a study of 1500 Harvard and Radcliffe freshmen, Perry[3] made the following observations:

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[1] Helen Taba, *Thinking in Elementary School Children*. Cooperative Research Project No. 1574. San Francisco State College, 1964, p. 53.

[2] William H. Burton, *The Guidance of Learning Activities*, 3rd edition. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1962, p. 436.

1. The typical approach of 90 percent of these students was to start at the beginning of the chapter and read straight ahead. No attempt was made to survey the chapter, note marginal headings, or first read the recapitulation paragraph in which the whole structure and summary of the chapter was given. Thus, none of the clues and signals provided as a basis for raising questions were used to identify specific purposes for reading.
2. Their performance on a multiple-choice test on details as far as they were able to read in this manner was impressive. But only one in 100—15 in all—were able to write a short statement on what the chapter was about. Perry describes the reading performance of 99 per cent of these students "as a demonstration of obedient purposelessness in reading."

Obviously, setting a purpose is a potent influence on reading comprehension. But a purpose for reading can only be defined and established if the reader knows what kinds of questions to ask the author. According to both the Harvard study and the analysis of teachers' questions, it seems evident that students and teachers need to improve the quality of their questions. Perhaps in our teaching we need to shift our emphasis from giving the right answers to raising relevant and significant questions.

The Purposes and Formulation of Questions

As a tool in the teaching of reading, questions have two main functions, diagnostic and instructional:

(1) *As a diagnostic tool,* they are unstructured, allowing the student to respond in his own fashion, thus giving the teacher opportunity to observe the variety of individual responses in a natural reading situation.

(2) *As an instructional tool,* questions are more precisely formulated and logically organized to uncover the author's pattern of thought, develop discussion, and clarify meaning.

Questions also serve to evaluate learning, but in these situations, questions are primarily concerned with the content rather than the process of reading, and for that reason will not be considered at this time.

It is the teacher's responsibility to understand these two separate functions of questions so that she may use them independently and concurrently in appropriate situations to stimulate thinking and help the student increase his awareness of the reading process. To do this, it is essential that the teacher first decide for which of these functions she will be using her questions. Her purpose will determine what types of questions to ask and how to formulate them. In each situation, students should also be made aware of the purpose of the questions. Otherwise, they perceive questioning as testing and the classroom atmosphere is charged with tension as the teacher conducts a threatening inquisition instead of a natural discussion.

Diagnostic Questions

As a diagnostic tool, questions are formulated to elicit the maximum response from an individual. In analyzing his response, the teacher gains insight into his process of reading, which provides a basis for planning appropriate individual instruction. In obtaining evidence of the student's ability to select, organize, and relate ideas gained from reading, Strang[4] has long advocated the use of the free response. In her study of reading interests and patterns, she used as a stimulus the question, "What did the author say?" This question is purposely somewhat vague in order to leave the subject free to express his habitual response to printed material. From analyzing the responses to this question, she concluded that all aspects of reading are involved in answering it, thus giving the most revealing single picture of the individual's reading ability.

More recently, this unstructured question has been used to diagnose reading proficiency by Gray and Rogers[5] in their study of mature readers. Adapting Strang's stimulus question, "What did the author say?", and a scale for rating the responses, their diagnostic procedure also emphasized more encouragement of the free response and less dependency on formally structured questions.

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[3] William G. Perry, Jr., "Student's Use and Misuse of Reading Skills: A Report to the Faculty." *Harvard Educational Review,* Vol. 29, No. 3, Summer 1959, pp. 193-200.

[4] Ruth Strang, *Explorations in Reading Patterns.* Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1942.

[5] William S. Gray and Bernice Rogers, *Maturity in Reading.* Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1956.

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While the formulation of the unstructured question poses no difficulty, the analysis of the response does require the teacher to be skillful in identifying which reading skills appropriate to the material should be noted in the response. Among the insights revealing reading proficiency, the teacher may note the following:

1. The student's approach to a reading passage
2. His tendency to relate ideas rather than merely seize on isolated details
3. His ability to uncover the author's pattern of thought
4. His ability to organize and show the relation among details
5. His tendency to let his emotions or prejudices and personal experiences influence his comprehension
6. His tendency to relate what he reads to other knowledge he has gained
7. His ability to communicate in writing what he has gained from reading

Diagnostic questions, then, reveal rather than conceal individual differences.

Instructional Questions

As instructional tools, questions serve the purpose of guiding the reader to select, organize, and relate the author's pattern of thought during or following the reading experience. In these situations, questions are primarily concerned with identifying the types of thought relationship developed to unify the content. In other words, the central purpose of questions at this time is to focus on the process rather than the content of reading.

How is this accomplished? First of all, the teacher must be able to analyze the author's structure of thought to identify the type of relationships around which he has organized his ideas. For example, ideas that are related through comparison will be identified through key word combinations such as: *some-others; either-or; as-so; one-both; all-none; few-many.* In this instance a question may ask for a comparison in which details are related according to likenesses and differences. If a contrast is stressed, then the question asks for a response in which just the differences are related. Frequently, details are related in a time sequence, as indicated by key words such as *long ago, later, now.* In this case, the question is formulated so that the response relates details to indicate development and/or change. In other thought patterns, sequence according to process rather than time is significant. Here the student reports details logically organized in a specific series of steps. Other types of relationship are cause-effect; problem-solution; main idea-detail. In each case the type of relationship suggests the formulation of a single question which requires the student to select and relate relevant details in his response rather than a series of specific questions which elicits a simple yes-no answer or an isolated factual detail.

Profitable instructional questions then guide and clarify various types of relationship which result in comprehension. Discussion begins with a global question which focuses on the essence of the selection and serves as a point of departure for evolving further related questions which serve to clarify, modify, or illustrate meaning. Challenging questions stimulate students to report relationships among ideas and lead to fruitful discussion. Here more time is spent in listening and supporting answers to questions than in asking them.

If the effective reader is a questioning reader, more and more opportunity should be given to students to formulate and analyze questions themselves. Perhaps in this changing world of expanding knowledge, it is more important to learn how to formulate significant questions than it is to know all the answers.

What effect does training in the formulation and use of questions have on teaching performance? Here are some insights student teachers at the University of Arizona have reported:

1. One of the most important things this experience has taught me is not to expect a particular answer. I feel very strongly that the diagnositic question should allow a *free* response. When I first started, I would keep on asking different people if they know *the* answer when I didn't receive the answer I had decided was logical. I often found myself, having run through the whole group, giving the answers myself with loaded questions. Now I accept all ideas and then have students refer to the text in search of evidence for the best answer. The students read with much more comprehension and enter into discussion more enthusiastically now, for there is a real controversy to solve.

They understand that any of the reasons could be possible but the question is which ones can be justified.

2. In becoming aware of the importance of questions during my semester of student teaching, I have noted several changes in approach. Before presenting the story I try to begin with at least one free response question and other supplementary questions. I've noticed that the pupils have more to say lately, and with more expression. I have also found that one effective question seems to lead to another as if it were a natural sequence so there's more continuity in our discussion. I feel I have also applied this knowledge in answering pupils' questions. When they ask questions about their work, I try to answer them with instructional questions in return, instead of answering their questions without stimulating thought.
3. From actual instruction, I found that the children were "detail" oriented. I mean that most of the questions were asked primarily to find out if the children knew the specific facts in a particular selection. I found in my own instruction that not enough questions were thought-provoking and that they did not promote inductive reasoning or divergent thinking. The questions did not cover many of the comprehension skills, especially inference, conclusion, and generalization. After observing and asking general questions over a period of time, I did initiate some action in formulating questions in the instructional situation. I have seen results in increased interest and enthusiasm. In teaching the proper motivation and keeping the pupils' interest is essential. The most useful technique I have found to develop motivation is thought-provoking questions.
4. I have used the information from this class almost every day in my student teaching. I used to be the type who would try to diagnose and prescribe on the basis of impressions, suspicions, feelings. I wasn't always wrong or right; that is beside the point. However, I was inaccurate, non-specific, and possibly unjust in some of my decisions. I now feel more professional. I now have a specific process to follow no matter what the reading material may be. For that matter, the process applies to many instructional areas other than reading. Making my decisions about diagnosis and prescriptions on the basis I now use, gives me a sense of security. I feel I could explain and justify what I am doing to a parent or a principal now, much better than I could before.

I now try to give my students a guide to their reading by having them ask questions before they read. After they have read, we spend more time listening to the answers to questions than we do asking them. I attempt to ask them questions which will guide their future reading, and I think I notice an improvement in attitude and in reading. This approach takes reading beyond interest and makes it challenging no matter what the material is.

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C. SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL

1. Using the Multi-Media in Building Reading Power

H. M. NASON

THE ADVANCES of technology are not without their impact in today's classrooms: the new and greater demands so imposed upon the schools are accompanied by devices that help teachers to meet the challenge.

Overhead projectors, precision-geared tapes in language laboratories, tachistoscopes and television sets—these classroom helps and others are inspired by technology to prepare students for the demands it will later make upon them.

Selecting and using the new multi-media in school education brings many questions, not only for teachers, but for administrators, school board members, parents, and taxpayers. A major difficulty in making adequate use of present possibilities is that of evaluating properly the usefulness and value of the newer media as teaching devices.

Any reliable statement of the use that can be made of the available multi-media in developing power in the reading act, for example, must involve the variable of teacher use, together with all the complexities inherent in the planning of a program, as well as the nature of the program itself.

One of the facets of multi-media which we are developing in Nova Scotia is our School Television program. It is based on the principle that real knowledge and skill are dependent upon practical experience, concrete things and events, things that can be heard and seen. Such experience is an essential element in the education of every child. The television camera is one method of providing in the classroom some of these experiences of sight and hearing.

The success of school telecasts seem to rest on two conditions: the teacher must expect the telecast lesson to fit into his own lesson plan, and the producer must expect full classroom use of his telecast by the teacher. The teacher must plan and think ahead. He must choose the right programs to fit into his classroom plans and to suit his educational aims. To combine his own capabilities and resources with those of the telecast for the greatest benefit to the pupils plans must insure the active cooperation of technicians, teachers, and administrators.

In Nova Scotia we add to these three the parents and the public. The fact that our school telecasts are not on closed circuit means they enter living rooms as well as classrooms. We have encouraged parents to view the programs, supplied the teaching guides and other aids to the many who have been spurred to study the courses. We have promoted the freeing of office personnel to take advantage of the courses, and arranged for these adult students to write provincially-set examinations.

According to our experience one of the most interesting uses of educational television in building reading power can be to familiarize adults with the methods teachers are using to teach their children to read. Through interest and growth in adult reading skills resulting from use of school TV programs and other available multi-media, home and school and community are brought into a working harmony that should make the teacher's task in developing reading power in children less difficult.

In addition, school television can help to orient the pre-school child and his parents towards realizing the standards required by the school in the teaching of reading and to assist the transition from home to school.

As our thinking advances regarding use of multi-media we must involve the teacher even more fully in research projects and in planning for changes in approach. As changes in approach are made, we must involve parents and other adults, so as to avoid the tensions that are caused when the people involved in the educative process are working at cross purposes.

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3. Individualizing Instruction Through Pupil-Teams

BEARNICE SKEEN

PUPIL-TEAM learning designates a device long used by human beings to learn many things both in and out of the formal educational system. However, cooperative learning among peers has been frowned upon and indeed outlawed in some of our traditional memorize-regurgitate, question-answer, learn-test school environments. To shift to an acceptance of pupil-team learning necessitates consideration of several guidelines.

1. An acceptance that pupil-team learning is one way of increasing learning on the part of youth.
2. A belief that the process, two or more persons working together, is an important and needed skill in today's and tomorrow's reality.
3. An acceptance that time spent helping students learn how to help each other learn is time well spent.
4. An acceptance on the part of the pupils that learning and working together is valued as one way of learning.
5. An assessment of the climate for change before a change in procedure is introduced.
6. A willingness to provide and to encourage diversified learning activities suited to the level of learning and to the rate of learning of the students.
7. The use of a plan or several plans for the organization of the teams which the learners perceive as an effort to help each learn, happily and better.
8. A commitment to helping youth learn is more important than commitment to a procedure.
9. An analysis of one's motives in the utilization of pupil-teams for the enhancement of learning will permit a more objective evaluation of the procedure.

Some situations in which pupil-team learning may be operative include:

1. Proof-reading of any written material before making copy to be read by an evaluating person.
2. Preparing essay question on a given section to be used as basis for review.
3. Preparing short answer questions over given content.

4. Reading same book and discussing, not the plot, but "what the author is saying."
5. Talking together to find the main points of a film, a lecture, or other common listening experience.
6. Writing answers to questions, then talking with partner for additional ideas.
7. Listing items of content, such as heads of governments in the "free" world.
8. Preparing evidence for both sides of an issue.
9. Working out solutions to situational tests—"What would you do if . . . ?"
10. Outlining a section or chapter.
11. Paraphrasing.
12. Applying rules, generalizations, or principles to a new situation.

The suggestion that pupil-team learning is an important procedure is predicated upon the assumption that students learn more and better if they are involved actively in the process. Acceptance of this assumption indicates, then, that the students must be involved in the evaluation of the procedure, also. The teacher and the students, using acceptable assessment techniques, can determine not only if pupil-teams enhance learning but which pupil-team situations give the greater satisfactions.

C. SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL

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1. Means Versus Ends

MARTHA GESLING WEBER

Shane in a recent publication lists thirty-five major educational plans for coping with individual differences.[1]

LIKE DEMOCRACY, the term "individualizing instruction" is a good term to use. Today, many procedures in reading are labeled under the term individualizing instruction and are sold to teachers and to the general public under that label. Because currently the label is a good one, the package may be accepted without carefully evaluating the content, the use to which the content is to be put, or the relationship between the content of the package purchased and the content of other packages that have previously been purchased.

Our concern about individual differences is not a new concern. However, in this century, writings such as those of Darwin, Freud and Dewey have forced us, as never before, to pay attention to the individual. At least four general approaches to the individualizing of instruction in reading can be identified:

1. Individualizing instruction through VARYING THE RATE OF PROGRESS. For many years the idea that there are differences in rates of growth has been accepted by educators. To provide for differences in rate of growth, teachers have varied the rate of progress. Students go through the same materials, but at different rates. An example of this approach would be the use of the many programed materials which are on the market today.
2. Individualizing instruction THROUGH VARYING MATERIALS. Here the concept of self-selection, with its stress on differences in interests, and that of readability, with its stress on differences in level of difficulty, have received much attention from people in the reading field.
3. Individualizing instruction THROUGH VARYING METHODOLOGY. Questions such as the following are asked: Should the teacher teach the class as a whole, use small group discussions, or permit each student to work on his own with individual counseling when a problem arises? To what extent shall the teacher rely on textbooks, on non-textbook materials, on audio-visual materials, on direct experiences such as field trips as the purveyors of ideas?
4. Individualizing instruction through VARYING ORGANIZATIONAL PLANS. Grouping on the basis of age, of achievement, of intelligence, of interests, of social maturity have all had their proponents.

From administration, curriculum and psychology—to mention just a few of the areas—have come a multitude of suggestions and recommendations for individualizing instruction. And certainly the experts in the area of reading have not sat quietly by. Often the acceptance of one of these approaches has been seen as the solution. Occasionally we even find one approach pitted against another as if the solution to the problem of individualizing instruction were an either-or situation. As more and more teachers and administrators jump aboard one of the bandwagons labeled individualized instruction, some people have become concerned by what seemed to be a fragmentation in the solutions offered and an overlooking of the end goals to be achieved. It almost would seem as if the current emphases on WHAT has been done to individualize instruction and HOW it has been done have hidden the important WHY it has been done.

Why individualize instruction? The answer you say is obvious—to meet the needs of individuals. But at least two questions are raised by the answer: What are the needs of individuals? Why meet the needs of individuals?

What are the needs of individuals? It is well to remember that in some ways we are like all other individuals and so have common needs. In some ways we are like some other individuals and so have group needs. In some ways, we are like no other individual, and so have needs that are unique. Certainly the needs of individuals are many and varied. As we talk about individualizing instruction are we concerning ourselves (1) with the needs the student shares in common with all human beings, (2) with the needs he shares in common with the various groups in the culture with which he is identified, or (3) with the needs which are uniquely his? Sometimes as we strive to meet individual differences as students grow IN reading, we overlook the need for their growing THROUGH reading.

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[1] Harold Shane, "The School and Individual Differences," *Individualizing Instruction*, Chap. VIII. Sixty-first Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part I. Chicago: Distributed by the University of Chicago Press, 1962, p. 49.

Why meet the needs of individuals? We meet the needs of individuals because in our society we believe in the intrinsic worth of each individual. Believing this, our society expects from each individual a respect for the intrinsic worth of every other individual. Tyler and Brownell in a thought-provoking summary of the facts and issues involved in the individualizing of instruction present our dilemma.

> In a homogeneous, static society the planning and administration of appropriate schooling for its members would be a relatively simple matter, rather easily attainable. Our American society, however, is neither homogeneous nor static. Yet, the basic function of our schools must be the same, namely, to serve the best interests of our society. In order to maintain its stability, our society, though it be progressive, must insist upon conformity in many, many matters—and the schools must educate in such a manner that its members will conform whenever such conduct is essential and desirable. At the same time, in order to assure its evolution, our society must with equal vigor insist upon diversity—and the schools must educate accordingly. . . . The task of the school is, therefore, two-fold: It must foster conformity without sacrificing diversity; and it must encourage diversity without preventing conformity. The conflict in ends is self-evident; but the route to the successful completion of the task is not so apparent. . . .
>
> So, we conclude as we began: Human variability is real, inevitable, ineradicable, desirable, and indeed essential. Nothing less than uniform acceptance of these facts and full recognition of their implications for education and for society will suffice even as a start toward the individualization of instruction. . . . In our schools we must foster both conformity and diversity, neither at the expense of the other.[2]

Summary. The present emphasis on the individualization of instruction is a needed one. However, as teachers try to individualize instruction (1) through varying the rate of progress, (2) through varying methodology, (3) through varying organizational plans or (4) through varying materials, they need to recognize each of these approaches as but a part of a total context. In addition, they need to see the individualization of instruction as a means to an end, not as an end in itself.

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[2] Fred T. Tyler and William A. Brownell. "Facts and Issues: A Concluding Statement," *Individualizing Instruction*, Chap. XVII. Sixty-first Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part I. Chicago: Distributed by the University of Chicago Press, 1962, pp. 326-327.

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3. The Effect of Training in Listening on Reading Achievement

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There are four rather clearly defined facets of the language arts—reading, writing, listening, and speaking. Anderson *(1)* refers to these areas as "reciprocal processes of communication." The act of communication involves two distinct acts: transmission and reception. Speaking and writing can be considered to be tools of transmission, while reading and listening serve as instruments of reception. The matter of immediate concern in this paper is the interrelationship between reading and listening and the effect that one has on the other. Since there is evidence to indicate that reading and listening are closely related, the question has often been asked: Will training in listening improve one's reading abilities?

The Relationship of Listening and Reading

It is held here that reading and listening are somewhat analogous processes in that each involves the act of perception and that these two receptive skills are closely related. This position is supported by the researches of Dow *(4)*, Hampleman *(5)*, Cleland and Toussaint *(3)*, Austin *(2)*, and Vineyard and Bailey *(7)*. For example, Dow *(4)* reported approximately eighteen factors of reading comprehension that seem sufficiently similar to listening comprehension to consider these two skills closely related. Also, Cleland and Toussaint *(3)* found that of several selected tests of reading achievement, listening, arithmetic comprehension, and intelligence, the measure showing the closest relationship with reading was the STEP Listening Test.

Since reading and listening do appear to be closely interrelated, it has often been hypothesized that any program designed to improve listening ability will result in a concomitant improvement in reading achievement. The rationale in back of this assumption is that reading is a kind of mental listening. When you listen to someone talk, you hear a continuous flow of words with your ears which, in turn, is translated into meaning by the mind. That is to say, we hear with our ears; we listen with our minds. In the case of reading, on the other hand, we do not listen with our ears; we scan the printed symbols on the page with our eyes, and these symbols, in turn, must be translated into meaning by the mind. In both cases one must be attentive to the medium of transmission: speech sounds on the one hand and printed symbols on the other. In either case interpretation is a mental act and one must attend to the symbology in order for the mind to have anything to interpret.

Many individuals fail to interpret properly when they read or listen to someone talk because they suffer from what might be termed "chronic inattention." That is, they take mental excursions when they are supposed to be listening or reading. Such lapses of attention can become habitual.

Research has clearly indicated that listening skills can be improved through proper training. It seems reasonable, therefore, to assume that if one can learn to improve his comprehension of materials he listens to or that are read to him, one should be able to understand similar materials by reading them himself. The assumption is that if one learns to be more attentive when listening to oral expression, the same skill should transfer to the act of reading.

The Problem

Out of such reasoning has grown the question: Will training in listening improve one's reading achievement?

Although a number of studies have indicated an affirmative answer to this question, there appears to have been ample justification for replication because of failure in some instances to take into account certain factors which may have tended to contaminate the findings. For example, (1) providing listening training but failing to show that skill in listening actually improved as a result of the training; (2) failing to take into account the effect of instruction in reading received by the subjects during the period when training in listening was being provided; (3) the effect of teacher personality and elements of oral style when several teachers provided listening exercises; and (4) failing to establish a minimal reading level for subjects in the studies. In regard to establishing a desirable minimal reading level for subjects in a study of this nature, it appears likely that the effect of listening training on the reading achievement of a retarded reader who might be struggling with the mechanics of word recognition would, in all probability, be negligible.

In a recent study *(6)* conducted under the direction of the writer, an attempt was made to control as many of these variables as possible. The study was designed to test the following hypotheses:

1. There is no significant difference in the amount of gain in auding achievement between eighth-grade pupils who receive training in listening and those who do not.
2. There is no significant difference in the amount of gain in reading achievement between eighth-grade pupils who receive training in listening and those who do not.

The Procedure

Standardized tests of reading achievement, listening, and intelligence were administered to 223 eighth-grade pupils at the outset of the study for purposes of selecting experimental and control groups and to serve as bases for measuring change in reading achievement and listening ability at the termination of the study.

From this population two groups were chosen, one to serve as an experimental group and the other as a control group. The following conditions were considered in the selection of the groups:

1. Both experimental and control groups should have basically the same instructional program except for the training in listening for the experimental group.
2. Because of the influence of the mechanics of reading, no subject should have less than a 6.5 grade level score on the standardized

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reading achievement test.

3. The subjects should receive no formal reading instruction during the period of the study.

In order to satisfy all of the above criteria, the experimental and control groups consisted of 74 and 79 subjects respectively. These groups were comparable from the standpoint of reading achievement, listening ability, and intelligence at the outset of the study.

The next step involved the development of a series of exercises designed to improve listening ability. Two conditions were set as criteria in the construction of the training exercises: (1) the exercises must instruct the subjects in how to listen, and (2) they must direct attention to the various abilities which are now believed to constitute the process of listening. Twenty-six such exercises were developed and were pre-taped to eliminate the influence of teacher personality and elements of oral style.

The exercises were then administered to the experimental group at the rate of three per week for a period of nine weeks. No formal reading instruction was provided for either group during the period of the study. Except for the listening exercises, the school programs for the two groups were basically the same.

Upon the completion of the auding training program, alternate forms of the standardized tests of listening and reading achievement were administered to both the experimental and control groups and gains in reading achievement and listening skill were calculated.

Using the mean gains in listening and reading achievement of the experimental and control groups, critical ratios were calculated for the purpose of testing the hypotheses set forth in the statement of the problem.

Conclusions

Changes in listening ability. Although both the experimental and control groups improved in listening ability during the period of the study, the gain made by the experimental group was significantly greater (.01 level of confidence) than that of the control group. The superiority of the experimental group in listening ability at the termination of the experiment appeared to be due to the listening training exercises.

Changes in reading achievement. Both the control and experimental groups made gains in reading achievement during the period of the study. However, the mean gain of the experimental group was significantly greater (.05 level of confidence) than that of the control group. Thus it can be concluded that the difference in favor of the experimental group probably could be attributed to their improved listening ability, or, in any case, to the training program which purported to develop the listening skills.

The effect of training in listening on specific aspects of reading. When specific aspects of reading, as measured by the instrument employed, were considered, it was found that there was a significant difference in growth in paragraph comprehension and ability to alphabetize between those who received the listening exercises and those who did not, with the former making the greater gain. On the other hand, there was no significant difference between the gains of the two groups in rate, rate-comprehension, directed reading, word meaning, sentence meaning, and the use of the index. However, in each of these sub-skills the difference in the gain that was made was in favor of the group which had the training in listening. It appears likely, therefore, that although the differences were not significant, each did contribute something to the over all change in reading achievement, which was statistically significant.

Implications

The findings of this study suggest that more attention should be given in the school program to the improvement of listening skills. One can reasonably assume that a concentration of effort in which a variety of materials is employed to bring about growth in the diverse abilities comprising the process of listening will influence not only skill in listening to oral speech but also the total act of reading.

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C. SECONDARY LEVEL

1. And Beyond the Lines

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ONE OF THE MAJOR responsibilities of today's teachers is teaching reading as a thinking process, teaching children to think as they read. For it is the thinking reader—the critical reader—who has the foundation for evaluating what he reads. In discussing the building of this foundation, we may begin with Helen M. Robinson's reminder that "critical reading is based on, or is an instance of, critical thinking."[1]

Edgar Dale defines critical thinking as "thinking which has been systematically criticized," as "the kind of sustained thinking necessary to deal adequately with such questions as: . . . 'How can I improve my teaching?' "[2] It leads to the kind of reading that asks such questions as, "Should Antigone have been loyal to her dead brother, Polynices, or to her country?" And what does this play have to do with my life today? And why is it considered a "classic" anyway?

Mortimer J. Adler, in *How to Read a Book,* describes the kind of reading necessary to produce this kind of thinking:

> When [people] are in love and are reading a love letter, they read for all they are worth. They read every word three ways: they read between the lines and in the margins; they read the whole in terms of the parts, and each part in terms of the whole; they grow sensitive to context and ambiguity, to insinuation and implication; they perceive the color of words, the odor of phrases, and the weight of sentences. They may even take punctuation into account. Then, if never before or after, they read.[3]

We might summarize his delightful description by saying that critical reading—whether it involves reading a news story in the morning's newspaper or a masterpiece by Nathaniel Hawthorne in the school textbook, or a love letter—should involve three levels of comprehension.

Reading the lines:
WHAT DID HE SAY?
Reading between the lines:
WHAT DID HE MEAN?
Reading beyond the lines:
WHAT GENERALIZATIONS MAY BE DRAWN?
WHAT EVALUATIONS MAY I MAKE?

As we are concerned with teaching these levels of reading in all types of literature, we are, of course, actively engaged in teaching critical reading of literature.

We must begin with what we might call the facts—the words in the sentences, the sentences in the paragraphs, the paragraphs in the work of literature. What do they say? To teach critical reading, we must have a passion for accuracy. One day, a child in a teacher's class read the word *home* as *house.* The teacher's first reaction was to ignore the substitution; it was such an easy error to make. Then she realized that *house* had few of the rich connotations of the word *home* as it was used in the story. By misreading the word, the child had been unaware of some of the "facts" of the story. A whole point would have been lost, the teacher who told this story reported, had she accepted the child's substitution. Every teacher has had similar problems, enough to convince each of them that reading of literature—reading a poem by Frost or a short story by Hemingway—begins with reading the words, the phrases, the sentences as the author wrote them—reading the lines.

The second level of comprehension becomes possible only when we have mastered the first. A student can read *between* the lines only when he can *read* the lines. What did the author really mean? What inferences may be drawn? What is Emily Dickinson really saying when she speaks figuratively? Why does Shakespeare begin *Julius Caesar* with the scene that he does? Why does e. e. cummings call the balloon man "goatfooted?" Why? Why? And for every answer there must be proof in the literature itself. It's easy to see how developing this level of comprehension is, in effect, developing the ability to think critically about what is read; in other words, to read critically.

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[1] Helen M. Robinson. "Developing Critical Readers," *Dimensions of Critical Reading.* vol. XI, Proceedings of the Annual Education and Reading Conferences. Newark: University of Delaware, 1964, 3.

[2] Edgar Dale. "Teaching Critical Thinking," *The News Letter.* vol. XXIC, No. 4. January 1956.

[3] Mortimer J. Adler. *How to Read a Book.* New York: Simon and Schuster, Inc. 1956, 14.

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③ Finally we must teach reading beyond the lines. How do I evaluate this story, this play, this poem? In the *Texas Curriculum Series,* the Commission on English reported that the reader must learn "that *no* evaluation [of a work of literature] is permissible (or indeed, possible) until a work has been understood."[4] What was said? What does it mean? Finally, what is it worth? As William S. Gray said, "One of the first tasks of a teacher is to encourage students to withhold judgment until they are sure they fully understand the book or selection read."[5]

The student can move to the third level of comprehension only after he has moved successfully through the first two.

John Simmons wrote in an issue of the *English Journal:*

> Teachers require a series of reactions to the literature read, both in speaking and writing. In this they are asking for critical reading, a task which should be central to reading assignments in all secondary content areas. Students must go beyond mere passive acceptance, or comprehension; [in other words, beyond levels one and two] they must do something with what they read. In evoking a critical response, teachers are moving students toward more *mature,* sophisticated reading activities.[6]

Everyone, it seems, tells us to teach critical reading, but very few writers tell us *how* to go about that job.

We begin, according to Anne Stemmler,[7] director of the reading-study center at the University of Texas, by selecting material, literature in our case, within the experiential background of our students. To expect a junior high school student to read Eliot's *Waste Land* critically is to expect the impossible. He may learn to parrot our reactions to and judgments of such literature, but he cannot, on his own, read critically literature so far beyond his realm of experience. Once appropriate selections have been made, Stemmler continues, the art of teaching critical reading next involves the art of asking questions. ④

To teach comprehension in depth, she tells us, we must develop the ability to ask questions that send the students into successively deeper levels of meaning. "Ask low level questions," she maintains, "and you teach low level comprehension." The twin arts of question design and progression are among the most critical aspects of teaching deep-level comprehension. Our sequence of questions may begin with questions that ask for mere recall:

What does the author say?

In your own words describe how the main character looked.

But our questions must soon progress beyond this level into the non-literal:

What does the author mean?

What does the main character symbolize? ④

And, finally, to encourage real depth of understanding, our questions must lead the student into generalizing, into evaluating, into applying what he had read in other situations. Once we have designed our questions and planned their progression, our task of *teaching* critical reading has really just begun. Now, according to Stemmler, we must analyze our questions for the demands they make upon the reader. What reading-thinking abilities are evoked by each?

Level-one questions cause little trouble. The student is being asked simply to recall information read, or to search through the material for specific information given. Our students may do these tasks with ease. And when they do, they're ready to move into the more difficult, non-literal, level-two. Here even our high school students may require much help. Just exactly what does a student do to find meanings which are implied? Of course he brings into play the basic processes of recalling and searching. But beyond these tasks he must analyze, synthesize, and extend meanings. In teaching the student to handle these tasks, a teacher may well begin by sharing with a class the steps through which she has gone in arriving at implied meanings—a difficult job for most teachers read easily, and the easier the job the harder it is to explain to someone else exactly how it was done. But what an important learning experience this can be for the students. The teacher might take a short piece of literature, familiar to the class, and show them *how* she read it: how she analyzed it, categorizing the kinds of incidents, images, words used; how she drew together—synthesized—the information collected; how she generalized about what it all added up to, what it really meant.

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[4] *Texas Curriculum Studies.* Report of the Commission on English Language Arts, Report No. 2. Austin: Texas Education Agency. July 1959, 47.

[5] William S. Gray. "Increasing the Basic Reading Competencies of Students," *Reading in the High School and College.* Forty-seventh Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part II. Chicago: University of Chicago Press. 1948, 107.

[6] John S. Simmons. "Teaching Levels of Literary Understanding," *The English Journal.* Vol. 54, No. 2. February 1965, 101.

[7] Anne Stemmler. In seminar at The University of Texas, Spring, 1966.

The students are given opportunities to go through these same processes. Over and over on literature well within their range of experience and ability. They learn to analyze, to synthesize, to extend. And as they are learning we are constantly aware of their successes and failures.

Only when understanding of the work seems assured, may we move to level-three questions, those calling for further generalizing and evaluating, for applying insight gained from reading in new situations. Additional cognitive processes are involved here. The students must now compare, contrast, extrapolate. He must hold in mind a set of criteria and measure the work being read against that criteria. Weighing, testing, trying out ideas, he may need to apply what is in one situation to other situations. He may need to call to mind other works of similar theme or style. He may need to move beyond the specific to the general.

To help students arrive at this point as readers, we need to lead them to formulate their own questions and to seek their own answers:

What does the title tell me about this story?

Why does the author begin as he does? End as he does?

From whose point of view is the story told?

Is this point of view significant?

What ties the episodes of the story together—the characters? the action? the setting? a stated idea? an implied idea?

What does every important detail of the story add up to?

What may the central theme(s) be?

What evidence in the story supports the generalizations I am making?

Questions such as these send the student to the story itself, not to a summary of the author's life or to a headnote in a textbook. The critical reader must ask and answer questions such as these. For only after asking and answering these and other questions may the student evaluate the story. And only as he learns to form valid judgments based on reading not one, not two, but dozens of stories, does he truly mature as a reader.

There are still other experiences basic to teaching our students to read critically. Somehow we must free them from the idea that everybody must have exactly the same response to and interpretation of a work. They do *not* have to admire every poem we admire, or to read many of them in just the same way. As we all know, but somehow our students don't seem to, there's evidence in most works to support more than one valid interpretation. We must help them to understand how their backgrounds and experiences, different from everybody else's in the class, will partly determine how they respond to some works. A simple exercise like one used by Allen Briggs, professor of English, Sul Ross State College, is applicable here. He has his students read Carl Sandburg's *Fog* and then draw a sketch of the cat they see in the last sentence. Of course we know that our students can read this poem, can read the lines and between the lines, and beyond the lines, and still come up with different pictures. That a cat is a cat is a cat is not for our students—all of whom have known different kinds of cats and who consequently react to them in different ways.

Everything that we've said so far has assumed that our students can, at least, read the lines. But what about the retarded reader and critical reading? George Spache, at the Texas Association for the Improvement of Reading meeting in February, 1966 told a group that the retarded reader, particularly at the upper grades, may lack the word attack skills. To expect him to move into reading

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levels two and three—to read critically—before he has mastered level one is unrealistic. Much modern literature on the teaching of the educationally disadvantaged student suggests that the teacher read aloud or present by tape, record, or other audio-visual media some literature within the interest and experience range of the student, but beyond his present reading skills. His ability to think critically, a prerequisite to reading critically, can be fostered by encouraging discussion about, and reaction to, what he has heard. As his skill in reading increases, he can be led through the same carefully structured experiences in the reading/thinking skills that other students have had.

My final comments concern what effect teaching critical reading as a foundation for evaluation may actually have on our teaching—at the seventh, eighth, or ninth grade, or at whatever level we teach.

First, if we are really using literature to help our students to read critically, then we may have to change some of our present practices. Such reading of literature as described here implies thoughtful study, careful study, prolonged study. That kind of study, of course, means the studying of fewer poems, stories, works of literature. Notice I didn't say reading fewer; I said *studying*. Our students may be reading dozens of pieces in and out of class which we won't *study*. No longer must we think in terms of covering an entire anthology. We must be selective. For class study, we must severely limit the number of selections we teach. Thus, the first result of teaching critical reading of literature will be—paradoxically—to teach "less" more! In other words, to emphasize depth reading, not surface reading. And it means this at all grades. Jerome Bruner says that "intellectual activity anywhere is the same, whether at the frontier of knowledge or in a third-grade classroom. . . . The difference is in degree, not in kind."[8] For our purposes we may take that to mean that the seventh grade student may be taught to read in depth just as the twelfth grade student is taught. What will be different will be the kinds of materials with which we teach him the process of close reading, of critical reading. The works of literature will be appropriate to the maturity level of the students.

A second consideration: these fewer selections, more closely read, will be taught in a different way. The critical reader is, above all else, an *independent* reader. To develop such a reader requires inductive teaching more than deductive teaching. The kind of teaching which asks questions which encourage students to seek answers. As one writer says, more draw-it-out teaching and less pour-it-in. The kind of teaching, as G. Robert Carlsen has said, which stimulates the student to teach himself. Such teaching is of necessity a slower process than the one most of us were taught by—the teacher or the textbook gave us the questions and told us the answers; our job was simply to memorize what we were given. In developing independent, critical readers, we must help students to "build [their] own meaning—[their] own understanding and appreciation—to ask and answer [their] own questions,"[9] as Mac Klang has suggested. We must encourage more student involvement with the work of literature. Students must have time, he added, to think and feel about the pieces they read, time to voice those thoughts and feelings. In this kind of teaching, a class may spend a day, two days, a week discussing a single short story or poem. What we are teaching here is not a short story or a poem but a *process* of reading a short story or a poem which the student in turn will, on his own, transfer to other short stories and poems; habits of reading which the student will carry with him long after he has forgotten the specific pieces of literature which he studied in school. Bernice E. Leary was saying as early as 1948 that "guiding students in the technique of novel-reading should ultimately supplant novel-teaching."[10]

This brings up another problem. Examinations which simply test students' recall of specific works of literature may no longer be valid if we are more concerned with habits of reading than with the works read. We need to use the technique of the *End of the Year Examination*[11] in which students are given an unfamiliar piece of literature and then asked questions about it.[12]

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[8] Jerome S. Bruner. *The Process of Education.* Cambridge: Harvard University Press. 1963, 14.

[9] Mac Klang. "To Vanquish the Deadliest Game: A New English Curriculum," *The English Journal.* Vol. 53, No. 7, October 1964, 509.

[10] Bernice E. Leary. "Reading Problems in Literature," *Reading in the High School and College.* Forty-seventh Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part II. Chicago: University of Chicago Press. 1948, 143.

For example, at the end of a unit on poetry, our test may be to give the students a short poem, similar to those studied but not from that group. Our questions about the poem will demand that the students apply the reading skills they have been learning.

We'll ask questions about what was specifically stated and what was implied; and we'll ask about the meaning of the whole, and the meaning of the parts; and we'll ask for generalizations and evaluations possible only after thoughtful reading and rereading and reading again. And over and over we'll say, "Give examples. Cite your proof. Refer to specific words and lines."

How do we teach our students to evaluate what they read? We begin by teaching them to be critical readers, readers who weigh and consider, readers who *think* as they read.

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2. Strengthening Reading Skills in the Senior High School

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THERE ARE MANY reasons why the teaching of reading should be continued through the senior high school. At present we have a far greater insight into human growth and development than we had in the past. Psychological research has established the concomitancy of physical development and mental growth and educational achievement *(1)*. During adolescence boys and girls experience an acceleration of growth in many phases of development: physical, mental, social, and emotional. We may expect, then, educational achievement, including the mastery of reading, to assume new perspectives and depth during the adolescent spurt of growth *(4)*. The ever-increasing complexity of modern concepts in all fields of learning intrigues the adolescent mind and offers reading teachers a challenge and responsibility for limitless development of the essence of reading—comprehension.

Recent research has resulted in a clearer understanding of the psychological process of reading which defeats the traditional belief that reading skills can be completely mastered in the elementary grades. Many of the higher reading skills take on meaning only after students have reached new vistas of understanding, appreciation, personal insights, and individual attitudes toward life *(5)*.

Because of generally accepted changes in promotion policies during the past decade, many pupils are being advanced to secondary schools on the basis of their social age and physical development. These students have only a meager knowledge of fundamental elementary reading skills. They need continued instruction, practice, and drill in the many facets of reading. Also, the reading skills acquired in the elementary grades by average and better-than-average students are far from being complete. They must be perfected, refined, and expanded.

The studies consulted in the preparation of this paper, emphasize the importance of specific goals for the teaching of reading on the secondary level. It seems that without definite goals for the mastery of specific skills little if anything will be accomplished. If, however, the goals for secondary teaching of reading are conceived too narrowly, if they are isolated from the heart of reading—which is understanding, enjoyment, appreciation, and a constant voluntary expanding involvement in the great world of reading—only meager results can be expected. The joys and satisfactions that come from reading will never be experienced by secondary students if they are subjected to piece-meal reading skills taught in a vacuum by unimaginative drill-master teachers.

Pertinent studies recommended a great number of skills to be taught in secondary reading. Of these only two were selected for treatment in this presentation: vocabulary knowledge and flexibility of reading rate.

Development of Vocabulary

Secondary students cannot reach their reading potential unless they have adequate vocabulary knowledge *(6)*. The achievement of this knowledge and the continued growth of this knowledge is insured by the students' love for words. It is facilitated by teachers who possess and radiate a similar spark of enthusiasm for the study of words. Here we present three principal methods for the study of vocabulary.

The first method is the mechanical memorization of long lists of unusual words. This method is based upon the erroneous assumption that single words are repositories of meaning. Memorized lists of words make little permanent change in the students' vocabulary. They offend against long-accepted principles of learning: interest, motivation, and association. Because students memorize these words isolated from content, they forget them very soon. The most serious harm derived from the rote memorization of words is the fact that students attach only one meaning to each term. Thus, they establish a vicious mental block against the effective use of context clues when confronted with new and strange words in a variety of reading situations. They are handicapped in rapid critical thinking because they lack the speedy flux of ideas for want of practice in thinking of multiple meanings of words in context.

An alternative to memorizing long lists of unusual words would be the study in depth of narrow ranges of words taken from various secondary curricular disciplines. Each subject area in the high-school curriculum imposes a specific vocabulary of new terms which must be taught, illustrated, and exemplified from the students' experiential backgrounds. The meaning of many of these words in their particular settings cannot be derived from synonyms, antonyms, and structural analysis, not even from the dictionary. Unfamiliar, specialized printed terms remain a jumble of meaningless symbols, unless they are made vital ingredients of the students' meaningful vocabularies which are based upon direct and vicarious experiences.

Such words as "filibuster," "protective tariff," "sets," "atomic fissure," "plateau," "culture," "oxidation," etc., if well taught in ideational context, with material aids, and by enthusiastic teachers, will become strong bearers of meaning: catalytic agents as it were, fermenting and synthesizing concepts into large areas of knowledge. Here is a tremendous challenge for secondary teachers of all subject areas to open to their students the wealth of concepts of the greatest living language — English. "Its words are pushed, hammered, stretched, and extended to answer the needs of new experiences" *(7)*. Secondary teachers have reported to the writer that their teaching of specialized vocabulary increases considerably the academic achievement in content fields.

Using the Context Clue for Vocabulary Development

There are still many high schools where not every student has his own dictionary. While the lack of this very important aid to reading is regrettable, teachers should know the limitations of the dictionary. The constant, restless referral to the dictionary stifles the ingenuity of students in intelligent guessing of the meaning of new and difficult words or phrases. Many times, too, high-school students experience severe difficulties in selecting the correct statement from a number of dictionary definitions. Frequently, no single entry expresses the meaning the author wishes to convey. The dictionary defines the words and ideas of "yesterday"; it does not present the connotations of the words of today and "tomorrow."

It is the context of a reading selection which determines the word fitting into a particular passage. "Context" is more than the words surrounding an unknown term; it is the total situation in which a word is used. Context clues are hints hidden or expressed in a sentence, a paragraph, or an entire reading selection from which the appropriate meaning of a word can be inferred. Some types of context clues are

the expectancy clue,
the previous-experience clue,
the synonym clue,
the antonym clue,
the association clue,
the figure-of-speech clue,
the summary clue, and
the mood and time of the writer's clue.

Context clues are generally used with other word-recognition techniques, such as structural and phonetic analysis. Indeed, context clues increase the accuracy of word recognition because they make possible the immediate detection of errors by the reader. For the further study of context clues, for practical examples and methods of teaching this important aid to vocabulary development, our readers are referred to the excellent study on contextual definitions by W. B. Mullen *(10)*.

Secondary teachers should have a good understanding of context clues and teach them effectively until adolescent readers will use them independently in their everyday reading. It has been the writer's observation that the use of simple context clues is taught quite well in the primary and lower intermediate grades. In the upper grades and in high school, this important method of teaching vocabulary seems to be neglected entirely. Many college freshmen cannot recall having heard the term "context clue" in their high-school reading classes.

James Brown of the University of Minnesota, a recognized authority on vocabulary research, recommends the formula, "CPD," i.e., "Context, Parts, Dictionary" for teaching new words. Brown, in a scholarly lecture at the 15th Annual Meeting of the National Reading Conference in Dallas, Texas, stressed the great importance of introducing difficult and unfamiliar terms in context.

Many schools use with much success the EDL Word Clues series of programed vocabulary for grades seven through thirteen. This series presents each new word in a content lesson developed around topics of extreme interest for adolescents. Three programed learning frames present word clues and multiple dictionary entries for the mastery of each term.

Vocabulary Development through Structural Analysis

The breaking of words into smaller parts, into root words and affixes, should enable students to increase considerably their word knowledge. Massey and Moore recommend the study by secondary stu-

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dents of high-frequency-usage prefixes and suffixes *(9)*.

Brown, in his book *Programed Vocabulary,* presents "The Fourteen Words That Make All the Difference" in vocabulary growth. These fourteen words, according to Brown, "contain the most useful shortcut yet discovered to a bigger vocabulary" *(3)*. Brown's method seems promising for speedy vocabulary development.

Braam and Sheldon, too, recommend the intensive study by high-school students of root words, prefixes, and suffixes. *In Helping High School Students to Read Better,* the authors present the most frequently used Latin and Greek root words, suffixes, and prefixes for study in secondary reading *(2)*.

The mastery of syllabication and phonetic analysis remains a problem for both secondary teachers and students. The writer administered Dolores Durkin's *Phonics Test for Teachers* to some 200 elementary and secondary teachers. The study, not yet completed, shows distressing results. There are many teachers who do not know the most elementary generalizations of phonics and syllabication. It is these teachers who literally raise crops of non-readers every year.

Versatility in Reading and Reading Rate

Reading versatility in the senior high school has assumed tremendous importance. Adolescent boys and girls are assigned to read newspapers, magazines, textbooks, sourcebooks, cartoons, and various types of literature: novels, short stories, essays, dramas, and poetry. This wide range of reading materials serves the interests, needs, and goals of high school youths. A number of such goals or purposes were obtained by the writer in a secondary class in developmental reading. "Why do you want to improve your reading?" was the question asked. Here are some of the answers received:

to keep up with the news,
to learn to know myself,
to gain information,
to become an astronaut,
to understand new ideas,
to select TV and radio programs,
to learn to know boys and girls,
to understand new concepts in science,
to learn auto-mechanics,
to prepare outlines and summaries,
to prepare for hikes and tours,
to understand road maps,
to detect possible bias of writers,
to forget my personal problems,
to understand maps and graphs,
to cram for examinations,
to learn about romance and marriage, and
to learn to read faster.

There followed a lively discussion of the types of reading needed to accomplish the purposes listed. An approximate reading rate was assigned to each goal. The importance of satisfactory comprehension in speed reading was made clear.

Some of the students began to realize that they were not reading at the rate of which they were capable. There were others who needed much help with developing aids to rapid reading such as phrase reading and techniques of surveying, skimming, and scanning. They had to learn how to use the "sign posts" for comprehension: titles of reading selections, marginal headings, italicized words or phrases, and transitional expressions indicating sequence of ideas, additional information, and cause and effect relationships.

High school teachers may not take it for granted that the skill of a flexible reading rate can be understood and applied without definite instruction. Students need frequent guidance in selecting appropriate speeds for the reading of versatile materials for specific purposes.

A teacher of general science might ask his class to open the basic text to the table of contents and then proceed to determine with the students the approximate reading rate for each chapter. A unit on weather and climate can probably be comprehended at a much faster speed than can a unit on electricity and atomic energy. Students must learn that rapid reading is useful only to the extent that they can comprehend various types of materials while reading for a specific purpose.

Not many high school students understand the skills of skimming and scanning. The term "skimming" is used to describe the process of quickly surveying a reading selection to get a general conception of the purpose of the writer and the structure and key ideas of the material.

The term "scanning" designates rapid reading for specific information. The reading process of scanning may be compared to scanning the shelves in the library for a certain book or the shelves in a dry-goods store for certain articles. When scanning reading materials, students know what they are looking for; they do not dwell on information irrelevant to their purpose. There are many students who have not learned to scan the table of contents and the index of their textbooks and others references. They leaf aimlessly through their books and give up in disgust at not being able to find what they want or need to read.

The daily newspaper lends itself very well to the teaching of skimming and scanning. Editorials, national and foreign news, want ads, cartoons, information on stocks and bonds, society news, etc., are generally found on the same page day after day. Efficiency in skimming and scanning make it possible to read several papers daily. The habit of keeping abreast of local, state, national, and international developments in all aspects of life should be cultivated in the senior high school. Indeed, this habit must be developed from kindergarten through college if we may hope for its survival after the formal years of education.

In her survey of reading skills of fourth graders through adults, Helen Stolte Grayum showed that the ability to skim was not well learned. Wide differences in this ability were found at each grade level *(8)*. The results of this research indicate that schools must do a better job of teaching students when and how to read faster.

The terms "skimming" and "scanning" are foreign to many college freshmen. When entering college, most students seem to have but one comprehension rate —slow or fast, for a great variety of reading purposes and materials. If the same students had learned in high school how to "shift gears" in reading, they would experience fewer difficulties in completing reading assignments in college.

Summary

This article has presented a brief study of the development of two high school reading skills: vocabulary knowledge and a flexible reading rate. Vocabulary knowledge is judged so important as to warrant the recommendation by the writer of a systematic study of words in all high school disciplines. The real problem in speed reading is the difficulty of adjusting the rate of comprehension to the purpose for reading and the difficulty of reading materials. Both skills, vocabulary knowledge and a flexible rate of comprehension, can be attained through excellent instruction by well-prepared teachers who are interested in opening to young adolescents the wonderful world of books.

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2. Recognizing Grammatical Clues

SUMNER IVES

THE TYPES of grammatical clues which follow are all instances of interaction between grammatical forms and lexical meanings. They are in the transition zone between grammatical and lexical meaning.

The first is a relationship between the meaning of a word and the kind of grammatical form which follows it. For instance, compare the meanings of *got* in "he got to eat later," "he got moving eventually," and "he got hurt in the accident." The forms of *get* have different meanings when followed by an infinitive, a present participle, and a past participle. Questions of whether such phrases appear in formal writing or not are irrelevant. The fact that they occur often and can be explained by rules consistent with English verb formation means that they are part of the English linguistic system. Similar distinctions are made with other verbs, as in "he has to leave now" and "he is to leave later."

Another type is the relationship between the meaning of a word and the kind of word it is grammatically related to. Compare the meanings of *pretty* in "she is a pretty girl" and in "they went pretty far." In the first, *pretty* modifies a noun, and in the second it modifies an adverb. In this instance, the difference in meaning is greater than a mere shift in class.

A third type is a matter of grammatical relationship and the lexical sense of some other word in the sentence. Compare the sentence "growing corn is green," in which *corn* is the simple subject, modified by the participle *growing,* with the sentence "growing corn is easy," in which the simple subject is the gerund *growing,* with *corn* as its object. When one sees such sentences as these, he makes the essential subject-verb connection by using, as subject, the word which is semantically the most probable. In the present instance, corn is much more likely to be green than to be easy. This is not exactly the same problem as that in the sentence "flying airplanes can be dangerous," for the sentences I gave are not ambiguous, although the prevailing kind of structural grammar has no way to distinguish them on a purely formal basis.

The preceding type of grammatical clue might be called that of suspension and resolution—a set of probabilities is held in the mind until a decision is indicated by something occurring later in the sentence. A different kind of this general type is used to distinguish such a sentence as "playing cards is expensive, if you play for money and lose often," from one like "playing cards are expensive, at least some kinds are." In speech, intonation helps, but the visual signal is the fact that the verb in one sentence is singular and in the other plural.

A more subtle kind of suspension and resolution is illustrated in the contrast between "I see the doctor now" and "I see the doctor tomorrow." The first sentence makes a statement about a present and purely visual act; the second sentence refers to an intention which involves more than a purely visual act. When reading these two sentences, a final decision as to the meaning of *see* is suspended until the adverb appears—or, if it has been tentatively made earlier, it is affirmed or revised by the lexical class of the adverb.

Before ending, I shall mention two kinds of probability which are not, strictly speaking, linguistic. One is the probability of performance, a matter of selecting a meaning on a basis of general experience. Take the sentence "the paper is ready to sign." Obviously, general experience denies the likelihood that the paper will do the signing, so we accept a passive meaning, although the verb is not passive in form. The other kind of probability comes from the situation. The best instance I can think of to illustrate situational probability is taken from Martin Joos, the sentence "take the big one upstairs." The interpretation of this sentence rests on the current position of the big one. In practice both kinds of probability frequently come to the aid of the linguistic clues.

I shall point out some of the grammatical clues in a very familiar poem, "Dover Beach," by Matthew Arnold. The first five lines are very simple—three sentences with the subject-verb-adjective pattern and two with the subject-verb pattern, although each contains modifiers. Thus:

The sea is calm tonight.
The tide is full, the moon lies fair
Upon the straits; on the French coast the light
Gleams and is gone; the cliffs of England stand,
Glimmering and vast, out in the tranquil bay.

Nothing very complicated so far. The next line is:

Come to the window, sweet is the night air.

This is an ordinary imperative followed by an inversion pattern—adjective-verb-subject. The next line begins with "only," followed by a comma. The punctuation indicates that *only* does not here mean what it would mean in such sequences as "only five" and "only by eating." Give it the meaning of "however" or "but" as I repeat the preceding line and follow it with the next two.

Come to the window, sweet is the night air!
Only, from the long line of spray
Where the sea meets the moon-blanched land,

Here we have a long adverbial phrase which includes an adjective clause, modifying *spray.* Arnold here complicates the syntax by inserting, as an interjection, "Listen!" As I repeat a pair of lines and continue, mentally omit this interjection, and you will note the subject and verb of the sentence.

Only, from the long line of spray
Where the sea meets the moon-blanched land,
Listen! you hear the grating roar

The final word in this line, *roar,* is the object of *hear* and is modified by a prepositional phrase and by a fairly long adjectival clause. Thus:

you hear the grating roar
Of pebbles which the waves draw back, and fling,
At their return, up the high strand,

Read this section without the clause. I interpret the verbs in the lines following this clause as unmarked infinitives, all with *roar* as their subject.

you hear the grating roar
Of pebbles . . .
Begin, and cease, and then again begin,
With tremulous cadence slow, and bring
The eternal note of sadness in.

To condense, "you hear something do something." The only remaining problem is the position of *slow,* after the word it modifies. When *slow* follows a verb, it is adverbial, but here it follows a noun and is therefore adjectival, although not in the usual position.

Now read this first portion of the poem and recall my interpretations of its syntax.

The sea is calm tonight.
The tide is full, the moon lies fair
Upon the straits; on the French coast the light
Gleams and is gone; the cliffs of England stand,
Glimmering and vast, out in the tranquil bay.
Come to the window, sweet is the night air!
Only, from the long line of spray
Where the sea meets the moon-blanched land,
Listen! you hear the grating roar
Of pebbles which the waves draw back, and fling,
At their return, up the high strand,
Begin, and cease, and then again begin,
With tremulous cadence slow, and bring
The eternal note of sadness in.

As you know, the entire poem is an expression of nostalgia. Arnold is regretting the passing away of a simple world of faith. Those who work in or with the language may regret the passing of the apparently simple world of five vowels, long and short, and eight parts of speech. The teaching of reading has a long tradition, and a great deal of practical value has been learned. I am not suggesting that all this be abandoned, but some new resources are now available. At home, I sleep on a bed that was made before 1800, but the mattress was made in 1961, and I use an electric blanket on cold nights.

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2. Developing Flexibility in Reading

BEATRICE JACKSON LEVIN

DESPITE the spurt in interest in speed of reading and the publicity given it by its more flamboyant proponents, most educators today agree that speed is not a unitary process nor should it be a constant, and that rate must always be congruent with the comprehension demands of the particular reading situation. In short, it is flexibility of reading rate that is necessary to efficacy in reading. Furthermore, according to research and observation of such people as Perry, Simpson, Thomas, Letson, and others, flexibility doesn't inevitably accompany the development of other good reading skills, but needs separate implementation. In the light of this, the following program of defining and developing flexibility of

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reading rate according to the reader's purpose and according to the level of difficulty of the material was undertaken.

The school in which I teach is an academic, all-girl high school, where the students are highly competitive and eager to improve in all areas. Efficiency in reading, therefore, represents a goal of primary importance.

In planning flexibility training, one must ascertain that the prospective students have no mechanical or semantic difficulties, for if there are problems in such basic skills as word analysis, vocabulary, or comprehension, then rate training would appear to be contraindicated at that time. However, it is important to keep in mind that the semantic problems of some students may stem from overly-slow, word-by-word reading. In getting an overall picture, it is also necessary to see at what level the student is operating independently and instructionally, for rate training should begin at a level where the student will encounter few mechanical or comprehension difficulties, so that he can concentrate on acceleration without fear of loss in comprehension. Therefore, preliminary testing is necessary.

Intelligence tests are given to check the general capacity. A standardized reading test (Cooperative Test-Reading Comprehension-2A) is administered, yielding a percentile ranking in vocabulary, level of comprehension, and speed of comprehension. An informal reading inventory and an informal check of flexibility are also administered. There is a careful evaluation of all the data. Those who evince problems in word attack skills or in comprehension are weeded out for instruction suited to their needs; the others who manifest few mechanical or comprehension difficulties are roughly grouped according to reading levels, for the flexibility training.

The results of all the tests are carefully discussed. The principle of flexibility of rate and the importance of recognizing and implementing this with suitable reading action is carefully explained. An index of flexibility (the difference in reading rate between easy and difficult material read for the same purpose, and the difference between material at the same level of difficulty but read for two distinct purposes) is calculated from the informal test of flexibility. A brief review of previewing techniques, the use of organizational aids, phrase reading and idea collecting is given.

After the initial period of testing, evaluation, and preliminary discussion of techniques, the next sessions are devoted to exploring flexibility according to difficulty of material. For most people, difficult, unfamiliar or scientific vocabulary is a more obvious signpost to slow down rate of reading than are difficult concepts. Parables and allegories, for example, often use deceptively simple language, yet their concepts may be far from simple. To illustrate, timed selections of varying levels of difficulty are given, with the same set purpose and always followed by a comprehension check. Easy selections may come from such graded materials as McCall-Crabbs, Guiler and Coleman, Reader's Digest Skill Builders. Difficult selections may come from Guiler and Coleman (upper levels), Guiler and Raeth, Wise, Morris, Bradshaw and Walker, or from mimeographed editorials checked via readability formulae. In each sample reading, the results are discussed to see why the timing can and should be paced to the level of difficulty of the selection, and to bring in bold relief the difference between very easy and very difficult material so far as rate is concerned. Actual practice in speed is then begun, always with comprehension checks. (Eighty per cent correct is arbitrarily considered acceptable.) Since even in a homogeneous group, there are differences in reading levels, it is well to use a graded series, such as the S.R.A. kit rate builders, for the students can proceed individually. When they have made sufficient progress to the higher levels, practice is then instituted with other materials, at both easy and difficult levels, to practice the ability to shift speed.

In the same way, with preliminary examples and then much practice, the three main varietal forms of rate according to purpose, namely skimming, rapid reading, and study-type reading, are explored. Again records are carefully kept, and the principle of which speed in what specific reading situation represents the optimum is discussed following each session. At

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the end of the training period, the students are again tested to check gains, especially in flexibility. Since versatility in rate is demonstrably a practical, efficient aspect of reading, the girls are highly motivated and make appreciable strides.

Understanding the practical wisdom of varying the reading rate commensurate to the needs of the particular reading situation, and sufficient practice in the use of this principle appear to be not only rewarding as to results, but sufficiently vital to incorporate into the reading instructional program as a whole.

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5. Flexibility in Reading Approaches: Measurement and Development

PROBABLY FEW CHARACTERISTICS of "good reading" have been given more lip service than reading flexibility. Certainly none has been more subject to misconception, vagueness, and contradiction. Conflicting conclusions about the nature and meaning of "reading flexibility" have been drawn from research based on differing designs, on "one-shot studies," on the use of widely varying methods of measurement, and on other faulty investigations.

A survey of published studies indicates that most reading people equate "reading flexibility" with "rate flexibility" (*4*:187-191). The reader is compared to the driver of a car. He is instructed to "speed up" when he sees an easy reading road ahead and to "shift gears" to slower speeds for more difficult reading roads. This analogy of reading flexibility stems from the assumption that a reader can consciously and directly carry his reading speed at will (without unintentionally changing his reading purpose).

Does the reader have *direct* control over the rate of reading or is rate merely *one* component of reading which interacts with other more indirect processes? It appears that much of the disagreement and confusion centers on this issue. A secondary assumption has been that there exists a general reading ability applicable to all kinds of reading for all kinds of purposes.

From many studies of eye movements, the following conclusions are drawn:

1] the vast majority of readers untrained in reading flexibility do not change their kind of reading performance greatly even when instructed to read for markedly different purposes;
2] readers attempting to directly control their rate of reading do not understand what they are reading (*2*:187-202).

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Furthermore, Spache has pointed out that there is no such entity as general rate of reading or a generalized kind of reading (*10:*30).

In light of this and other research (*4:*187-191), rate change can only be conceived as a *consequence* rather than a cause of reading flexibility. "Speed," "comprehension," and "speed of comprehension" are constructs. None is an end in itself and none is meaningful when divorced from real reading situations. A major problem in planning instructional programs to develop reading flexibility has been the failure to recognize its great complexity (*5*). Letson (*3*), Sheldon (*6:*299-305), Smith (*7:*17-23), Spache (*9*), Stone (*12*) and others have carried out important studies which lead to the conclusion that reading flexibility consists of the operation of many interacting factors rather than being one inclusive ability.

What, then, is reading flexibility? Continued research has led us to define it as the ability to utilize those fundamental reading skills, patterns of reading approaches, processes, and techniques required to achieve very different purposes for reading efficiently a wide range of materials. The flexible reader uses those patterns of reading approaches (*5*) particularly appropriate for the style, difficulty and ideational level, content, and theme of his reading and is guided by a suitable psychological set enabling him to anticipate the need for modifying his reading pattern.

The difficulty of assessing reading flexibility has contributed to the problem of understanding the concept of flexibility and translating it into instructional plans. Lack of definite measures results from inability to develop operational definitions and effective instructional programs.

General reading tests emphasize speed and/or accuracy of comprehension on single-purpose type reading. They do not show how well a reader has read for a number of different purposes. Such tests cannot distinguish the flexible from the inflexible reader.

If the presence and extent of reading flexibility is to be measured adequately, tests are needed which avoid pitfalls commonly present in such instruments. Davis (*1:*31 ff.) has pointed out that measurements of reading performance must clearly define purposes for reading each selection and must provide evidence that these purposes are being carried out. He (*1:*30-40) also cautions that reading selections are needed to measure reading performance under several differing purposes which include skimming and scanning, getting the main thought pattern, reading to learn the principal ideas, reading for thorough understanding of the content, and using appropriate reading methods in different subject areas.

Thus, tests measuring flexibility should contain several selections, each of which is long enough for reliability and validity. These selections should vary in style and theme, in content, in difficulty and complexity, and, most important, in assigned purpose. Any test measuring reading flexibility must require reading for a number of different purposes. Furthermore, the test should exemplify Davis' warning about using passages "about which it is possible to prepare questions that can be answered correctly (more often than chance will permit) only if the examinee has read the passage."

A judgment of reading flexibility can be formed by comparing performance on measures of rate, comprehension, and achievement of purpose. Such a comparison must involve the differential but interrelated nature of the subsystems of reading flexibility. For one system of scoring, see the discussion by Nason and McDonald (*5*). For an evaluation of other approaches see the reports by Smith (*7*:17-23). The validity of judging reading flexibility by such comparisons has been confirmed by eye-movement photography (*13*:187-202).

Use of reading rate measures as one of the indices in judging reading flexibility does *not* imply that rate is causative or primary in reading flexibility. Quite the contrary. Reading rate must be considered as the *consequence* of the appropriateness of the patterns of reading approaches utilized.

The nature and extent of instructional programs aimed at developing reading flexibility should be planned on the basis of the deficiencies and needs revealed by standardized assessment of the student's reading flexibility. Since reading flexibility requires high level reading abilities, in many cases additional testing may be necessary to determine whether students possess sufficient mastery of basic reading abilities such as perceptual skills, fundamental functional skills, and reading experience in general. It is futile to attempt to develop reading flexibility without insuring a sound and functioning reading foundation.

Test information and teacher observation should determine the kinds of reading materials, the nature and variety of reading tasks, and the amount of individualization comprising the developmental program for reading flexibility.

Spache (*11*:230-279) has warned that skills such as those vital to reading flexibility are achieved only by direct, planned instruction but that over-reliance on drills and exercises will merely result in a stereotyped approach to reading. Likewise, admonitions about the importance and desirability of changing reading performance do not produce flexibility. "Shifting reading gears" may be a lively figure of speech but it does *not* change patterns of performance in the desired direction.

Students should be provided with an extensive variety of reading, tailored to their levels of proficiency. Such reading materials should range from factual to fictional; from easy to difficult in style, content, and theme. Popularized non-fiction should be cheek to jowl with complex non-fiction. Light and interesting fiction should be shoulder to shoulder with theoretical and abstract fiction. All subject areas which the student is likely to meet at his present stage of development should be represented.

Since the student needs flexibility of attack, he should be taught to read for a variety of purposes. This instruction should demonstrate that patterns of reading approaches are influenced by several vital factors such as purpose for reading, the student's previous knowledge of the topic, the intrinsic difficulty of the subject, the style and vocabulary of the author, and the thematic approach.

The instructional program should require the student to appraise each of these factors before beginning to read any selection. Checks on the correctness of these appraisals should be provided. Students should be led—in gradual stages—from teacher identification of purposes for reading to self-establishment of these purposes. It is here that teacher support and individual conferences are extremely valuable. To become a flexible reader, a student must develop a psychological set which enables him to feel free to continually differentiate reading patterns to accommodate purposes, difficulty of material (*to him*), complexity of theme, background knowledge, as well as the urgency and extent of need to read the selection. All instruction in reading versatility must be clearly related to the kinds of reading which the student needs to do in his school situation.

Frequent informal teacher-made tests can provide teachers and students with indications of programs and continuing areas of need in developing reading flexibility. Letson (*2*) has described two types of such tests and suggests methods of developing and using them.

Analysis of these informal tests, supplemented by information from standardized tests of reading flexibility, should be used to modify the instructional program to correct deficiencies and provide for continued individualization of instruction. Group discussions of reading purposes and other factors encountered in the reading passages (of the informal tests), as well as appropriate reading patterns, enable students to understand the nature of reading flexibility. The touchstone of reading efficiency is reading flexibility. Research has shown, and continues to underscore, the great need for systematic instructional programs aimed at developing and maintaining this indispensable reading characteristic. Thus, reading instruction and assessment must be reshaped to include as a prime objective the attainment of reading flexibility.

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2. Improving Reading Rates

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MUCH OF the confusion regarding the improvement of reading rates would be dispelled if teaching to improve rates per se could be dissociated from accompanying disabilities or handicaps. Teachers at varying levels need to come to agreement with respect to what reading is. A commonly held definition conceives of reading as a single unitary process relating primarily to word perception. Take, for example, the position held by Fries: "The process of learning to read in one's native language is the *process of transfer* from the auditory signs for language signals, which the child has already learned, to the new visual signs for the same signals."[1] This is the first stage of reading. The second stage is accomplished when the reader's responses to the visual patterns become so automatic that the significant identifying features of the graphic shapes themselves sink below the threshold of conscious attention. The last stage of reading is reached when the reading process has become so automatic that the reader can use "reading equally with or even more fully than the live language of speech in acquiring and assimilating new experiences."[2]

Fries would argue that difficulties began when reading experts insisted that reading involved "stimulating and cultivating the techniques of thinking, evaluating, and so on . . . for these are and must be developed through *the uses of language*."[3]

If reading is the result of a single process primarily involving word perception—which it is not—then many of the currently held misconceptions regarding rates can be explained. Many of the reported attempts to improve rates have centered on the improvement of word perception skills and to a more limited extent, to the improvement of comprehension. Both word perception and comprehension have been more or less acceptably defined, but less thoughtful attention has been directed at other and more important components of reading. These include the thoughtful reaction involving both critical evaluation and appreciative responses, and assimilation, or the integration with previous experiences of the ideas acquired through reading.

It is at this point that most reading improvement programs have been failures. They may have improved rates, that is, have improved perceptual habits which in turn have made it possible for the reader to proceed more rapidly. Or, such programs may have resulted in improved comprehension as revealed by increased ability in answering questions aimed at disclosing the reader's ability to literally recount what has been covered. Such programs have not usually ventured into the realm of critical reading or creative reading, such as is found in versatility in modes of thinking about content or in bringing to bear special types of interpretation—historical, geographical, mathematical, scientific.

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[1] Charles C. Fries. *Linguistics and Reading.* New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1963, p. 188.

[2] Charles C. Fries, op. cit., p. 208.

[3] Charles C. Fries, op. cit., pp. 115-118.

Nason and McDonald in discussing reading flexibility agree that the term has been interpreted in a number of ways, and that there still is some ambiguity surrounding the term—what it is, how it may be measured, and how it may be developed.

> Flexibility is most commonly thought of in terms of *rate flexibility* (i.e., "varying rate to suit purpose"). It has been asserted, on the basis of a priori reasoning, that a flexible reader could and would select the *speed* which was best suited to his purpose and to the reading material. He would also deliberately vary his rate within the article to meet different kinds of reading situations. Mistaking rate change as a *means* of achieving flexibility rather than as a *result* has led many reading instructors and texts to direct students to vary their rate, "shifting gears" to a higher or lower rate when encountering easier or more difficult ideas, or when their comprehension needs were less or greater. *The assumption that readers can vary their rate at will is fundamental to the rate-flexibility concept. Research, however, does not support this premise.*[4]

The writers offer many suggestions which will assist the reader to attain flexibility. Identifying careful or intensive reading, casual reading, accelerated reading, and selective reading, they make the point that the achievement of reading flexibility does not just "happen," for it is a composite of many factors that are trained, taught, and encouraged through an individual's reading career.

Undoubtedly there are many individuals who adopt a way of reading at what Witty has called a "congenial pace"[5] which is far below the level of speed and comprehension at which they might read with pleasure and efficiency. Doubtless, too, Cuomo is right in maintaining that all people have "base" rates and that the reader with the better base rates may move up to very fast rates indeed. He goes on to observe that "he has—or should have—many rates."[6]

Many individuals labor under the mistaken impression that if they are successful in increasing their rates of reading, comprehension will automatically fall into line and that even memory will improve. All too often such individuals feel that the answer to their problems are to be found in reading "instruments." In 1962, Taylor reported on an earlier survey conducted through the IRA which revealed that approximately 59 per cent of the respondents employed one or more types of reading instruments at one level or another. The article treats the instruments in four categories: those using tachistoscopic exposures, those with directional attack control, those employing acceleration principles, and those designed to improve skimming and scanning. Taylor observes that:

> All instrument techniques have proved to be highly motivating and successful in encouraging students to apply themselves. They vary, however, in the skills they attempt to develop. They also vary in their success in achieving their purposes, according to the soundness of their training principles, and the adequacy of their accompanying materials, and the manner in which they are used.[7]

Taylor's conclusion might well be our own:

> In discussing reading instruments and procedures, every producer acknowledges that such techniques were conceived as aids to the teacher, not replacements; as part of a total program, not a complete approach; as developing certain specific skills and abilities, not as a panacea. There is a conviction, however, on the part of all who understand the function of instrument techniques, that they play an indispensable role in the balanced reading program of today and will play an increasingly important part in the schools of tomorrow, as the need is felt to teach more content in less time and to develop each student to his fullest potential.[8]

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[4] Harold M. Nason and Arthur S. McDonald. "Reading Flexibility," *Educational Developmental Laboratories Reading Newsletter*, 31 (January, 1964), 1-2.

[5] Paul Witty, Theodore Stolarz and William Cooper. "The Improvement of Reading Rate and Comprehension in Adults," *The Reading Teacher*, XIII (December, 1959), 123.

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[7] Stanford E. Taylor, "Reading Instrument Usage," *The Reading Teacher*, XV (May, 1962), p. 449.

[8] Stanford E. Taylor, op. cit., p. 454.

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2. A New Method of Measuring Reading Improvement

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READING teachers and clinicians need to get accurate measurement of individual differences in reading improvement. They need this vital information in order to evaluate teaching materials and techniques. They must have this knowledge so that they can evaluate the progress of individual students in class or the improvement of individual cases in the clinic. If grades are given for improvement in reading skill, these grades must be based on sound evidence of improvement.

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The most commonly used method of measuring individual differences in reading improvement is simply to give students a pre-training test and a post-training test and to measure improvement for each student by subtracting the difference between the pre- and post-test results. This measurement is known as "crude gain." A variation of this method is called "per cent gain" in which the difference between pre- and post-tests is expressed as a percentage of the initial score. Most evaluations of individual differences in reading improvement in classroom and clinic and most research studies on the correlates of reading improvement are based upon either crude gain or per cent gain measures.

Evidence that Current Methods are Faulty

Research on correlates of reading gains has yielded findings which appear highly questionable to the present writer. Let us look briefly at some of these research findings on variables related to reading improvement as measured by crude gain.

We all know that intelligence and reading comprehension are highly correlated. Yet several investigators—Schneyer (*8*), Chansky and Bregman (*2*)—have found negative correlations between intelligence and gains in reading under training conditions. In other words, the duller students improved the most in reading skill, and the brighter students improved the least. Bloomer (*1*) even found that students whose intelligence was greater than their reading ability improved less in reading than students whose reading ability exceeded their intelligence. Such findings not only fly in the face of common sense but also of sophisticated psychological expectations.

Similarly puzzling results have been found on the relationship between initial reading ability before training and improvement through training. The writer has found a negative correlation of —.71 between initial status on reading comprehension and course improvement in comprehension for college students. Negative relationships between initial reading ability and course gains in reading have also been found by others—Bloomer (*1*), Kammon (*3*), and Ranson (7). Why, may we ask, should the very students who have done the poorest in reading as a result of all previous training, suddenly and miraculously improve the most in a reading course?

It is common knowledge that various reading skills tend to be interrelated. On the whole, people with poor vocabularies tend to have poor comprehension scores on tests, etc. Why, if this is the case, do various investigators such as Bloomer (*1*), Kammon (*3*) and Ramsey (*5*) find non-significant correlations between various types of crude gains in reading? If skills are related, why should not improvement in skills be related?

The not too subtly implied inference here is that all of these strange and unexpected findings are spurious. They are probably the product of a faulty technique of measuring improvement. Let us now consider the inadequacies of crude gain techniques.[1]

As pointed out in an important monograph by Manning and DuBois (*4*), crude measurements have several important limitations. First, it is important to note that the use of crude gains involves certain assumptions which are seldom met in psychological measurements. These assumptions are that both pre- and post-test measurements will be expressed in identical interval scales with the same zero point and equal increments between scores. If these assumptions cannot be met, crude gains should not be used. Obviously, reading test measurements do not meet these assumptions. A second limitation of crude gain measurements is that individuals do not all start out at the same level, and these initial differences in ability create statistical difficulties (i.e., regression effects) in the interpretation of simple differences between pre- and post-test measurements. Due to regression effects, students who start out with low pre-test scores may show apparent improvement on re-testing even without training, and students who make very high pre-test scores may make lower scores on retesting even though no real change in ability has occurred. A third limitation of crude gain measurements is that they tend to introduce a spurious negative correlation between initial status on the pre-test and the amount of improvement between pre- and post-tests. This negative relationship is a statistical artifact which has led to many erroneous conclusions.

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[1] All comments about "crude gain" will also apply to "per cent gain."

The preceding considerations all argue against the use of crude gains for the study of individual differences in reading improvement by teachers and clinicians. Happily, a better technique is available for this use known as "residual gain."

A New Method of Measuring Reading Improvement

The residual gain technique was developed by Manning and DuBois (*4*) as a correlational method for use by psychologists in research on learning. Although at the present time people in the field of reading are not familiar with this method, the present writer predicts that it will become widely used by reading teachers, clinicians, and researchers.

Essentially, residual gain is a simple technique for measuring individual differences in improvement and which can be used by anyone with an elementary knowledge of statistics. Residual gain is the difference between a predicted and an observed achievement. In a reading class, it is the deviation of the actual post-course reading test score for a particular student from the post-course test score which was predicted for that student on the basis of the correlation between the pre- and post-course reading test results for the total group. The formula for residual gain is:

$$\text{Residual gain} = z_2 - r_{12}z_1$$

where z_2 represents the post-test score in z-score form, r_{12} is the correlation between pre- and post-tests, and z_1 represents the pre-test score in z-score form. The following simple steps are involved in computing a set of residual gain scores:

1. Convert both pre- and post-reading test scores to z-scores for each student.
2. Compute the r between pre- and post-test raw scores.
3. Obtain predicted post-test z-scores by multiplying the correlation coefficient by the pre-test z-score for each student.
4. Subtract the difference between the predicted post-test z-score and the observed post-test z-score for each student.

The resulting residual gain scores, in effect, permit the comparison of individual differences in reading improvement for students who have been equated statistically on the pre-course reading test.

Let us look at some evaluations of comprehension improvement when based upon crude gains and upon residual gains for the same college students. Both pre- and post-test scores are average scaled scores for Level of Comprehension on the Davis Reading Test. Gain evaluations are expressed as "derived scores" with a mean of 75 and a standard deviation of 10. This permits grading for improvement on the normal distribution curve in terms readily accepted (if not understood) by most students (i.e., A = 90-100, B = 80-90, etc.).

Student A, for example, improved her score from 64 at the beginning of the course to 76 at the end of the course. Expressed as z-scores, her pre-test score was —1.69 and her post-test score was +.34, yielding a crude gain in z-score form of +2.03. This crude gain may be easily expressed as a derived score of 95 or *A+*. However, her residual gain was only +1.39 based upon the difference between a predicted post-test z-score of —1.05 and her achieved post-test z-score of +.34. The residual gain may be expressed as a derived score of 89 or *B+*. In this case the crude gain over-estimated the improvement by not taking into consideration the expected upward regression from the initial low score on the pre-test.

On a group of 75 college students in a college reading course, Rankin and Tracy (*6*) found that grades for comprehension improvement as measured by the Diagnostic Reading Test-Survey Section were the same for only 53 per cent of the students when based upon crude gain and residual gain. Assuming the greater validity of residual gain evaluations, 47 per cent of the crude gain grades were in error. It was found that agreement between residual gain and crude gain grades were greater for students who made *C* on residual gain but that superior improvers tended to receive lower grades on the basis of crude gain measurements while inferior improvers were over-evaluated by crude

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gains. In other words, an injustice will be done to both superior and inferior students by the use of crude gains.

It is evident that the residual gain technique has many advantages for the reading teacher and clinician in the evaluation of individual differences in reading improvement. The value of this technique as a research tool in reading is now being explored in the Reading Laboratory at Texas Christian University.

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3. Developing Vocabulary and Comprehension Skills at the Secondary Level with Particular Attention to Motivational Factors

GEORGE SCHICK

On every level of teaching above the middle grades, a very considerable amount of attention has been given during the past ten or 15 years to the problem of increasing students' speed of reading. As a consequence, preponderant emphasis has been placed on the physical aspects of the reading act or upon the statistics of words-per-minute in nearly every discussion of reading instruction, to the ultimate neglect of the importance of vocabulary growth and of the improvement of comprehension skills. Although the exaggeration of speed in the total reading process has been particularly noteworthy in college and adult programs, it is more and more apparent at the secondary school level.

In the pioneer stages of the concept of developmental reading, perhaps this stress on speed and physical factors was almost inevitable, in part because it was so easy and simple to count eye-fixations, regressions, words per minute, and to operate a stopwatch. But stop-watch techniques and exclusive concern for the physiology of reading are clearly not enough, as every thoughtful teacher of reading will agree. Yet speed and facts about the physical eye are not to be ignored—rather they must be relegated to their rightful place in the development of the unique combination of skills that go to make up proficient reading. Improvement in rate is essential to the tasks that reading teachers assume. But speed is but one means to the end desired. Indeed, under present circumstances of the availability of devices and instructional aids, speed would seem to be less important than many other activities pursued in a reading center, partly because it is relatively easy to produce improvement in rate.

So it is high time to be genuinely concerned with some of the other significant facets of the reading problem, namely vocabulary growth and improvement in comprehension skills. But here again it is necessary to recognize at once and fully that many scores of hours have been and are being spent in most high schools yearly on matters of vocabulary achievement and on comprehension of the printed paper. But the tendency seems usually to foster vocabulary growth as an end in itself, to seek to develop improvement in comprehension largely on the basis of high grades alone. Like speed, however, increases in vocabulary and in comprehension are also just means to an end. Seen in true perspective, a high score on a word-recognition test or a comprehension examination is intrinsically of little merit. But consequent improvement in reading ability and understanding is of real significance for the reading teacher. Hence the teacher—and in the best sense, every teacher is a reading teacher, must place the emphasis where it belongs—on ends not means. The goal to be sought is not a high score on a test or a superior mark in the instructor's grade book, or even the successful completion of one or more years of secondary school. The emphasis is rather on *individual achievement,* on the acquisition of skills and knowledge which work for better understanding of what is said and read. To be sure, not all pupils will respond to the motivation of self-improvement, and not all exercises in vocabulary learning or comprehension analysis will bring about manifest achievement of progress toward the goal of reading proficiency. Yet proper motivation would seem to be the answer, and assuredly vocabulary increase and comprehension improvement merely to show a five to 15 point gain are of less significance both to the pupil and the teacher as well than ultimate growth in power of understanding and in reading proficiency. This goal of self-improvement instead of a better grade, of investment in individual achievement, will require explanation, reiteration, and frequent repetition if it is to be fully comprehended. But it offers a reasonable answer to the questions that every pupil is entitled to ask: "*Why* am I given this assignment?—*Why* am I studying vocabulary lists or exercises?—*Why* am I taking all these comprehension

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quizzes?—What *good* is all this to me?" Surely the high school youth is not too young to accept and be moved by the principles of enlightened self-interest, provided he is enabled fully to understand them.

With the relationship of means-to-end in view, consideration must be given to some specific practices in vocabulary and comprehension improvement.

Vocabulary Growth

In general, the kinds of training useful in promoting vocabulary improvement fall into two categories: the analytical and the contextual approach. Each has its place in a well-rounded and thoroughgoing attack upon the problem of insufficient word-control.

The analytical approach includes the familiar drills in word roots, prefixes and suffixes; word lists for particular areas of knowledge, such as social studies, mathematics, or science; word lists of special interest such as those formed from proper nouns and those of especially interesting origin, development, or derivation. With the abundance of such material to be found in texts and workbooks, professional journals and the publications of dictionary makers, perhaps the mere enumeration of these instructional aids and practices will suffice.[1] Despite their familiarity and frequency of use, however, these exercises are not to be underrated in usefulness. When used in conjunction with appropriate motivational instructions and with recognition of the limitations of any purely analytical approach, they can be most helpful. They add to the pupil's knowledge and reading skills. Nonetheless, they should not be relied uopn entirely. Probably the gravest danger which may result from this sort of training alone is the pupil's assumption that English words have but a single meaning. Another difficulty may arise from the lack of relevancy to the pupil's needs or verbal weaknesses in a particular selection of word-lists, or the remoteness from normal reading circumstances in studying any group of words out of context.

The other means to vocabulary development is the contextual approach. Most simply stated, this presents new words to readers not as isolated phenomena but rather in their natural environment, that is, in sentences and paragraphs of text, where the verbal circumstances will tend to assist the reader in identifying, limiting, or amplifying meaning. By contrast with the analytical procedures already cited, the contextual approach has had very little consideration, or use, or research. At present there is but one college textbook[2] and only a single secondary school series[3] which utilize the undoubted values of a contextual procedure in acquiring new words or fixing the meaning of words already somewhat familiar. Since *Word Clues* is a pioneer in the application of the principles not only of programed learning but especially of contextual clues in vocabulary training, it will no doubt stimulate extensive use, further application of the same principles, and valuable and continued development and research. Indeed, the most promising area of investigation in methods of vocabulary improvement would seem to entail considerable study and research on the ways by which contextual clues may be emphasized to foster growth in word mastery. The challenge to be met is to find the means of giving experience with many new words in context without requiring hours and hours of reading. It is a complex problem but certainly not insoluble.

Growth of Comprehension

If continuing motivation is regarded as helpful in getting students to perform tasks in vocabulary growth and development, it is fully as necessary in promoting advancement in comprehension skills. For today's pupils are tested and retested, examined and quizzed at every turn during their scholastic career. But the first and prime factor to recognize in the use of comprehension checks is that they are not to be merely productive of grades in percentages, like 58 per cent, 72 per cent, or 69 per cent. Instead, they should be looked upon as the means by which pupils learn how to understand better what they read and by which their teachers learn better how to teach and develop depth of perception and comprehension in reading. If pupils can be brought fully to realize that the comprehension quiz is an instrument of learning, a device by which they can perfect their techniques of understanding, then the examination ceases to be a sentence of torture and becomes a tool for promoting maturity of reading.

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[1] The two most general sources of material on vocabulary training are the publications of Edgar Dale and associates: *Bibliography of Vocabulary Studies,* Bureau of Educational Research, Ohio State University, 1949, and the later edition of 1957. Johnson O'Connor's "Vocabulary and Success" (introduction to *English Vocabulary Builder,* Human Engineering Laboratory, Stevens Institute of Technology, Hoboken, N. J.), is a classic in this field; Ernest Thompson, "The 'Master Word' Approach to Vocabulary Training," *Journal of Developmental Reading,* II (Autumn, 1958), pp. 62-66, and Wilfred Funk, *Six Weeks to Words of Power* (New York, 1960), represent two points of view on improving vocabulary.

[2] A. A. DeVitis and J. R. Warner, *Words in Context: A Vocabulary Builder.* New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1961.

[3] Stanford E. Taylor, Helen Frackenpohl, Arthur S. McDonald, and Nancy Joline, *Word Clues.* Huntington, N. Y.: Educational Developmental Laboratories, 1961.

In any detailed approach to the ways of achieving improvement of comprehension, due regard must be given to the elimination of several fundamental misconceptions about the nature of reading comprehension—and they are indeed difficult to eradicate. Some of these false notions are first that comprehending well means getting exactly what was said or written; that, second, a given passage has a series of ideas which the reader's mind absorbs like blotting paper; and, third, that the same passage should and must mean exactly the same to all readers. Yet a moment's careful thought will indicate the absurdity of each of these assumptions. So it is necessary to stamp out these erroneous notions fully, with frequent reminders to pupils of the fallacies that are incorporated in these wrong attitudes.

With these general factors taken care of, the teacher may develop the realization that comprehension is not a constant, but rather that there are many levels or degrees of comprehension, which the skillful reader adapts in accordance with his own purpose in reading the material. Here again motivation—in this instance, the reader's goal or purpose, is of transcendent importance. To make every pupil fully aware of the significance of purpose extensive practice is mandatory, for even the liveliest of immature minds find it difficult to predetermine why reading a particular selection[4] is required. Accordingly the student reader is to be trained carefully with exercise materials in such typical reading situations as getting the main ideas, reading for details in general or specifically for certain directions, skimming the entire passage for a swift impression of the whole, looking for inferences by the author, finding a particular statement or proper name or date, and the like. In each reading session with this practice material the pupil should be made to realize beforehand just why he is going to read the assigned selection; having settled definitely on his own purpose, he may proceed to the reading, adapting degree of concentration as well as speed to the specific task or circumstance. Little or no statistical evidence has been forthcoming on the validity of such practice as this; yet it seems amply safe to conclude that reader's purpose is of vital import. Repeated sessions in exercising his own judgment as to purpose can scarcely help being of tremendous assistance to the student-reader.

Another useful consideration for the improvement of comprehension concerns an analysis of the kinds of questions which customarily appear in comprehension checks. When student-readers become aware of the sort of questions they are likely to encounter—such as those on author's main ideas, on the subordinate ideas used to substantiate or explain principal thoughts, or the inferences to be drawn from the author's statements—then the disturbing features of an examination to test comprehension are gradually dispelled.

These are only a few of the types of analytical exercises which pupils should be required to perform. Still others devolve upon decisions concerning author's purpose, a fruitful approach, or upon extensive consideration of the structure of a given piece of prose. Here the detailed scrutiny will go from small to large elements, beginning with thorough understanding of the sentence as a unit of construction, moving then to paragraph, section or chapter, and finally to the whole passage. To be sure, secondary pupils are regularly asked to examine sentences and paragraphs, but mostly in the past this study seems to have been for the purpose of improving students' writing. But here the thought is to focus attention on the betterment of reading and comprehension through consideration of structural understanding.

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[4] See William G. Perry, "Students' Use and Misuse of Reading Skills; Report to the Faculty," *Harvard Educational Review*, XXIX (Summer, 1959).

Conclusion

With all this wealth of exercise and practice material at hand, thoughtful teachers of reading may safely move from preoccupation with physiological factors like eye movements, regressions, length of fixation and with scores in words-per-minute to the admittedly more subtle and difficult but likewise more significant features of the task of reading improvement, namely, the fostering of growth in vocabulary and comprehension skills. In every instance of this endeavor, close attention to motivational factors would seem to be of the greatest moment. With an understanding of *why* and *how* and *to what ends,* the secondary school pupil may be stimulated to increasingly mature skills as he develops his reading habits.

Sir Francis Bacon's advice, first written in the 1590's, may be most profitably adapted to the tasks here discussed, those of developing vocabulary and comprehension skills. He wrote in his profound little essay, "Of Studies," that "some books are to be tasted, others to be swallowed, and some few to be chewed and digested." So too are high school reading pupils to understand that reading may be performed at different speeds, for different purposes, with different degrees of concentration, for different results.

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3. Using New Media to Promote Effective Critical Reading

ROBERT E. SHAFER

THE NEED continues to exist for the development of a theory of critical reading adequate for the uses of reading in an electronic age. In a recent forecast of the future of reading research, Robinson (1) pointed out that: "So far little conclusive evidence has been gathered to guide teachers as to the age or grade level at which critical reading can be introduced or the sequence of teaching the essential skills."

The major reason that such a sequence in the teaching of critical reading has not been developed appears to be the lack of an adequate operational definition of critical reading conceived in such a way as to accommodate the changes in human perception and sensibility brought about by the revolution in communication which has taken place in the twentieth century. The elements necessary for an adequate theory of critical reading are present in a variety of disciplines, ranging from cultural anthropology through literary criticism. It remains for research workers in reading to synthesize these elements into a usable theory which will permit new significant research studies as well as teaching methods and materials.

What Is Critical Reading?

In a recent article Smith (2) pointed out the confused status of attempts to define the term "critical reading." In the interest of developing an operational definition, she provided the following: "According to the writer's thinking, *critical reading* includes literal comprehension and interpretation as defined above, but it goes further than either of these processes in that the reader evaluates, passes personal judgment on the quality, the value, the accuracy, and the truthfulness of what is read."

Granted that the above definition is an acceptable one, the problem is immediately raised as to the complexity of describing any one reader in the process of "evaluating or passing personal judgment on the quality, the value, the accuracy, and the truthfulness" of what he reads. The purpose of this paper is to discuss several of the factors necessary to understand the processes of critical reading as described above.

The Environmental Element

We sometimes act as though we believe that reading takes place entirely as an interaction between a reader and a book rather than between a reader and a writer, through a book in a specific situation at a particular point in time. The implication of modern communication studies would seem to suggest that our view of the variables affecting reading has been too limiting. Burton (3) sees reading in a broad historical context:

> In the early days of history, people read in a broad sense long before they learned to read printed or written words. They read directly the forces of nature, the actions and reactions of their friends and enemies. They possessed oral language and communicated by word of mouth, but had no transcribed language, hence nothing to read as we know reading today. Reading in a limited sense originated over a long period of time, during which man began to use pictures and subsequently developed a method of hieroglyphic writing. Centuries later reading in the limited sense was implemented by the invention of the alphabet. Then it received another impetus with the invention of printing, which in turn led to the invention of the printing press. Thus, through thousands of years people have evolved, within the framework of reading in the broad sense, a method of reading in the limited or specialized sense.

The advantage of viewing reading in its broad or cultural sense as well as in its narrow specialized sense is that it allows for the study of the effect of certain social and cultural forces upon the more limited aspects of reading. Development of the study of certain of these forces can only be suggested in this paper, but it seems clear that much more attention to them is needed if we are to formulate an adequate definition of reading comprehension, particularly those elements concerned in critical reading at highest levels of comprehension. As McDonald (4) has stated, "Modern linguistic studies have shown that reading (as one of the means of human communication) is a set of cultural associations taking place in a structured social situation." The fact is that these "cultural associations" are condi-

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tioned by "social situations."

The perspectives of the new electronic media of communication are providing a broader context for critical reading by changing the environment in which all reading takes place. This may seem to some at first an interesting speculation which has little relevance to the practical aspects of teaching critical reading in the classroom. However, upon reflection they will ultimately be forced to McLuhan's (5) conclusion that in a world of electronic communication children are growing up in a "classroom without walls," and that for all practical purposes the effect is "to institute a dynamic process that re-shapes every aspect of thought, language, and society." That such reshaping is occurring is substantiated by Witty (6) who reported that "the 1962 study (of children's televiewing time) showed an average of 16 hours per week in grade two, 23 in grade four, and 25 in grade five." To suggest some of the things children learn from reading television, Witty, in the same article mentions an article by Robert Goldenson in the November 1956 issue of *Parent's Magazine* which includes a remarkable composition by a ten-year-old boy describing, with a high degree of accuracy, a heart operation on a little girl. This was based only on a single five-minute sequence seen on television. There are many other similar examples of the fact that young people are already doing intensive critical reading of film and television. Much of this critical reading in the media is the result of incidental learning undoubtedly combining the results of prolonged exposure in these media with a transfer from critical reading activity in printed materials.

Methodological and Technological Contexts

In 1957 Vance Packard published his book, *The Hidden Persuaders,* which was as graphic an account as has ever been written of the systematic use of key cultural symbols to change the behavior of American consumers along carefully structured lines. The need for carefully developed programs of critical reading using the mass media has never been more carefully or clearly documented. One might have thought that new programs of critical reading would have developed in most secondary schools to meet the challenge of Packard's and other similar books. On the contrary, we have little evidence that such programs focusing upon the newer media of communication have developed. The recent publication, *Using Mass Media,* edited by William Boutwell, growing from the work of the Committee of Mass Communication of the National Council of Teachers of English is a compendium of models for the teaching of critical reading via the newer media of communication. Together with Postman's *Television and the Teaching of English* a valuable foundation has been laid for the development of critical reading programs using the newer media.

If one looks closely it is possible to see some developing programs of critical reading in the mass media. In most instances these programs are masquerading under names like film appreciation and screen education, but it should be clear that such programs are efforts to establish patterns of flexibility in the reader which will enable him to read the newer media of communication with as much power and sophistication as he is now being taught to read modern poetry or the new mathematics. Surprisingly many of the recent developments are taking place in Europe with interest in this country having dropped off considerably since 1942.

With new designs in school buildings and facilities which will make film and television easily accessible to the classroom, similar programs should develop rapidly. One technological development in particular should be noted—that of the development of 8mm sound film in education, which promises to make the 8mm the "paperback of the film field."

Other technological potentials for critical reading lie in both commercial and educational television, video tape, and the increased use of the commercial motion picture in education. The development of critical reading programs utilizing these media in our elementary and secondary schools would, to a large extent, enable our citizens of the future to read the mass media of communication with full powers of critical awareness which they will need to do if they are to make the political, economic, social, cul-

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tural, and aesthetic decisions necessary to the fullest sense of fulfillment and selfhood that our society can provide for the future.

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8. Secondary School Programs

A. Research in Reading for Different Purposes

HELEN K. SMITH

Although experts in reading have expressed the opinion that good readers use different techniques when they read for different purposes, very little research has been reported on the process of reading for different purposes. Expert opinion agrees that there is no single best way to read for all purposes and that reading techniques should be chosen in harmony with the purpose.

C. T. Gray[1] and Judd and Buswell[2] early were concerned with the relationship of eye movements and purpose for reading. When subjects read for the purpose of answering questions and of reproducing the general idea, the researchers in both studies concluded that the subjects differentiated between different purposes for reading and that there were indications that the processes varied with the purpose.

Another indirect approach to the study of the processes involved in one's reading for different purposes has been determining the relationship of rate and purposes for reading. Eldon Bond[3] and Carlson,[4] found that rate of reading was influenced by purpose.

Recent exploration of the problem of different rates of reading used for different purposes is demonstrated by the recent experimentation to appraise the flexibility of rate. Laycock,[5] Letson,[6] McDonald,[7] and others have constructed tests to measure the flexibility of the rate of reading when one reads for different purposes.

Troxel's[8] recent study was concerned with reading for different purposes in he expects—if he gives an objective test so you will study that real hard; if he gives essay questions so you get the general idea of that and you don't have to study the little things."

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[1] Clarence T. Gray. *Types of Reading Ability As Exhibited Through Tests and Laboratory Experiments.* Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1917.

[2] Charles H. Judd and Guy T. Buswell "Silent Reading: A Study of the Various Types," *Supplementary Educational Monographs,* No. 23, Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1922.

[3] Elden Bond, "Tenth Grade Abilities and Achievements," *Teachers College Contributions to Education,* No. 813, New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1940.

[4] Thorsten R. Carlson, "The Relationship Between Speed and Accuracy of Comprehension," Journal of Educational Research, 42 (March, 1949), 500-512.

[5] Frank Laycock, "Significant Characteristics of College Students with Varying Flexibility in Reading Rate: I, Eye-Movements in Reading Prose," *Journal of Experimental Education,* Vol. XXIII (June, 1955), 311-319.

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[7] Arthur I. McDonald, "A Reading Versatility Inventory," in Oscar S. Causey, editor, *Significant Elements in College and Adult Reading Improvement,* Seventh Yearbook, the National Reading Conference for College and Adults, 1958.

[8] Vernon E. Troxel, *Reading Eighth Grade Mathematical Material for Selected Purposes,* Doctor's thesis, University of Illinois, 1959.

More than half of the subjects in each group had never been taught or did not remember if they had been taught how to read for different purposes.

Subjects reporting they had been taught how to read for different purposes were asked to explain what they were taught. They gave vague descriptions, as rereading if they didn't understand the selection, getting the meaning of each paragraph, reading assignments "carefully," making an outline on the selection, and skimming fictional materials. Subjects did not refer to purposes other than those suggested in this study; the only purposes stated were those of reading for detail, for the main idea, and for enjoyment.

From the descriptions given by the good and poor readers, the following conclusion can be drawn concerning the subjects in this study:

1. Good readers were more successful in holding in mind the purpose for which they were asked to read than poor ones were.
2. Most good readers attempted to adjust their reading techniques to the purpose for which they read. They restructured and reviewed the content of the selection when their purpose was reading for details; they read for ideas and not facts when they read for the general impression. Poor readers, for the most part, did not adjust their reading method to the purpose; they read both selections for the purpose of getting details.
3. The reports given by the subjects revealed that teachers set purposes for reading by tests and by the questions they ask or the ones students anticipate. The textbook also helps students to set their purposes. Little, if any, direct guidance in reading for different purposes had been given to the subjects in this study.

mathematics; Shore[9] explored reading science for main ideas and for sequence of ideas. Rogers[10] found that when high school students read for the purpose of answering classroom-type questions they demonstrated limited skill in critical interpretation. Furthermore, when they read without guidance, they exhibited little skill in critical reading.

The purpose of the study being reported here is to investigate the abilities of and the methods reportedly used by fifteen good and fifteen poor readers when they were asked to read for two divergent purposes, namely for details and for general impressions.

The subjects were chosen from the twelfth grade in a public high school according to percentile ranks on the *Cooperative English Test, Cl: Reading Comprehension*. Subjects were also selected to represent several ranges of intelligence as based upon the *Wechsler-Bellevue Intelligence Scale*.

All subjects read two parts of a biographical selection which was concerned with an aerial-trapeze team. They were asked to read the first part of the selection for the purpose of getting details and the second part for getting the general impression. To equate possible practice effects, alternate good readers and alternate poor readers read part one first, the others read part two first. The two parts were read at two sittings on successive days. Interviews were conducted individually with each subject; tape recordings, which were later transcribed, were made of the entire interview. Before the subjects began reading each part of the selection, they were given the purpose for reading, a guiding question based upon the contents of the selection, and a suggested way of reading the selection, as reading it like a history assignment when they read for details or like reading a short story for enjoyment when they read to get the general impression.

Subjects answered questions on each part of the selection, one half of the questions requiring detailed answers and the other half, general impression answers. Each was asked to describe how he arrived at these answers. In addition, each described methods used for the two different purposes and their past experiences in reading for different purposes. Only the descriptions given by the subjects concerning techniques which they used when they read for the two purposes and their past experiences in reading for different purposes will be reported at this time.

To ascertain how well subjects held their purpose in mind, they were asked to state the purpose for reading immediately after they read each part of the selection. All good readers and approximately half of the poor readers successfully stated the purpose, the guiding question, and/or the suggested method of reading. In addition, poor readers made a number of vague and general responses, such as: "To remember the important parts of the story," "To understand what I read," and "Because you wanted me to."

All subjects in this study described how they read for each purpose. All began at the beginning of the selection and read straight through, except for rereading. Two-thirds or more in each group did not look for topic sentences when they read for either purpose.

Nearly all subjects in both groups reread parts of the selection when they read for details; fewer, when they read for the general impression. However, good and poor readers reread for different reasons. Poor readers reread because they did not understand parts of the selection or they could not pronounce a word; good readers skimmed to find definite information or reread to place information in mind.

Almost all of the poor readers read every word for both purposes; one-half of the good readers read every word when they read for details; and one-third, for the general impression. They omitted small words or information not pertinent to the guiding questions which they were asked. One good reader, in referring to different kinds of factual information when reading for details, stated: "I don't know whether I skipped them or not. They may come to me, but I don't hear them in my head." When asked if he heard other words in his head, he continued: "I know what they are saying; I sort of hear them."

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[9] J. Harlan Shores, "Reading of Science for Two Separate Purposes As Perceived by Sixth Grade Students and Adult Readers," *Elementary English*, Vol. XXXVII (November, December, 1960), 461-468, 546-552.

[10] Bernice Rogers, *Directed and Undirected Reading Responses of High School Students*, Doctoral Dissertation, The University of Chicago, 1960.

To remember the content of the selection, good readers were more prone than poor readers to restructure or to reorganize it, especially when they were reading for details. They made such statements as: "I thought I should try to catalogue the details into character or personality or accomplishment" or "All the way through it, when I came to a detail, I would try to pick it up and connect it with something else that would make it easier for me to remember than if it were just jumbled together."

Instead of restructuring the author's ideas, poor readers tried to remember different kinds of information in isolation.

Good readers referred more often than poor readers to the use of frequent reviewing while they were reading.

Good readers were not concerned with details when they read for the general impression; instead, they looked for ideas. Poor readers did not make this differentiation.

Good readers, with one exception, and two-thirds of the poor readers read the two parts of the selection differently. Both poor and good readers stated that when the purpose was to get facts they "tried to remember the little things." When they read for the general impression they "didn't think quite so much on the little details." Subjects from both groups read faster, they thought, for the general impression and slower for details.

Poor readers reported more often than good ones that when reading the selection for details they "tried to read carefully and get everything they read." Good readers, on the other hand, reported that they tried to fix information in their minds when they read for details and did not when they read for the general impression.

All subjects answered questions which were designed to elicit information concerning their past experiences in reading for different purposes. No appreciable difference exists between the good and poor readers in the number who had read in the past for each of the purposes.

More than half of the subjects in each groups reported that teachers set their purposes for reading assignments but did not tell or show them how to read for these purposes. Teachers set their purposes for reading by the tests they give, by directions given for the preparation of book reports, by suggestions for studying for class discussion, and by assigning questions found in the textbooks. The afore-mentioned explanations given by the subjects indicate that their knowledge of purposes for reading is quite limited.

Some who reported that their teachers did not set their purposes for reading added illuminating comments, as "They just say, 'Read it and do the question.' I guess by the time you are a senior, you should pretty well know how to go about getting answers to question," or "They let you work it out the way you are interested. You have to get the stuff on your own."

When the subjects were asked how they read when teachers gave them a purpose for reading, good readers stated that they read for the purpose given to them. Poor readers, on the other hand, referred to vague ways of reading as "I read from beginning to end. I try to read with understanding," "If I have plenty of time, I'll read it real slowly and carefully; but if I don't have plenty of time, I'll run through it real fast." It appears, from the responses given, that good readers recognize that they should read for the purpose given; conversely, most poor readers do not.

When teachers do not set purposes for reading, approximately one-half of the subjects from the good and poor reader groups read to get the general or the most important ideas; they "just read," or they read "carefully" and completely if they enjoyed the selection.

Distinguishing differences between the good and poor reader groups are seen in the remainder of the responses. Poor readers did not refer to any means of determining a purpose for reading when it was not given to them. Instead they read "straight through" or "to get it over with—just to complete assignments."

Good readers, on the other hand, stated ways in which they tried to establish purposes for reading. They stated that the purpose would be determined by the course they were studying, the selection they were reading, or the tests given by the teacher. One good reader explained the latter: "When I am assigned to a teacher I have had, I know exactly what

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D. SENIOR HIGH LEVEL

1. The Logical Dimension of Critical Reading

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THE NEED *for Teaching Critical Reading.* A prevalent belief in our nation today is that the young child is characterized by almost complete acceptance of printed material without critical evaluation, that the high school student displays more judgment, while the adult can adequately judge the accuracy, validity and worth of what is read based upon sound criteria. Studies have shown that this is not an accurate account of what happens. When Rogers (*6*) studied the reactions of 30 high school sophomores and 30 seniors to printed material in an undirected reading situation as compared to a directed situation calling for critical reading, she concluded that students focused on remembering facts to the exclusion of evaluative thinking about what they had read.

In 1956 Gray (*4*) surveyed the reading habits of a number of adults in various occupations and reported that they did not recognize implied meanings or draw the conclusions which the materials justi-

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fied. According to him, many adults read on a mechanical level and either did not react to the ideas read or did so at an unreflective level or in terms of their prejudices. An even more startling finding was that the high school graduates interviewed in the study did not display any more ability in interpreting meaning and reacting with sound judgment to the ideas read than did elementary school graduates.

In light of studies such as these, any assumption by high school teachers that they have little or no responsibility for developing increased competence in reading is seriously challenged. If the students in today's secondary schools are going to become citizens who will evaluate critically the ideas presented in increasing quantities of reading materials, they must be taught to read critically. In order to assume their proper responsibility for teaching reading, teachers must develop a working knowledge of the area.

Two Aspects of Logic in Critical Reading

Although the entirety of formal logic may not be in the province of the high school curriculum parts of it do have great value for teaching students to read critically. Some use of logic in judging printed materials is illustrated by the following questions: "Is the material internally consistent?" "Does the conclusion necessarily follow from the premises?" "Are the statements an accurate representation of what happens in the real world?" and "Are the statements dependable or trustworthy?" Two elements of logic—validity and reliability—and their application to critical reading are represented by these questions. These aspects will be explored in the remaining sections of this paper and techniques for teaching them will be proposed.

Validity of Printed Materials

A point of view or an argument presented in printed materials usually consists of evidence for the argument called premises and a conclusion. Validity is concerned with the internal consistency of the statement or argument and the attempt to determine if the conclusion necessarily follows from the premises. Most teachers will need to review the standards for determining when an argument is valid. Such books as *From Fact to Judgment,* Graves and Oldsey (*3*), *Logic and Language,* Huppe and Kaminsky (*5*) and *An Introduction to Critical Thinking* by Werkmeister (*7*) should help in the understanding of validity.

A simple valid argument which could have been extracted from a written passage is as follows: All cities in South Vietnam are under communistic control. Saigon is a city in South Vietnam. Therefore, Saigon is under communistic control. Here, the conclusion does follow from the premises and therefore is valid even though the first major premise is not true.

Teaching Validity. Following are some steps which teachers may use to help students test the validity of an argument. First, the student may be asked to strip the argument of any excess words or sentences. In most reading material, the premises upon which the argument is based are imbedded in voluminous amounts of materials which are not directly relevant to the argument. The first task then is to extract the premises from such extraneous materials.

Second, the student must be sure that he has access to all the premises. This involves the recognition of assumed premises upon which the conclusion may rest. The statement "Khrushchev is a communist; therefore, he is dangerous," has assumed by unstated premise that anyone who is a communist is dangerous. Assumptions may be perfectly legitimate premises, and the student must understand that they are as important to the argument as those which are explicitly stated.

Another step for students is to determine if an author is referring to all of a group, some of a group or none of a group. For example, if an author writes that six-year-olds are not mature enough to benefit from systematic instruction in thinking skills, does he mean that no six-year-old is mature enough? When students are attempting the logical analysis of a passage, they should be cautioned to transform sentences so that they begin with *all, some* or *no*. Unfortunately most arguments found in the typical passage are not in this form.

After a student has stripped the argument to its basic framework, identified all of the premises both stated and assumed,

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and transformed the premises, he is then in a better position to determine if the conclusion logically follows from the premises.

Reliability of Printed Materials

Although an argument may be internally consistent or valid, it may contain inaccurate statements or may be based on incorrect premises. In this event, the passage is unreliable. The reliability of a passage is the degree to which it is dependable or trustworthy. When a statement has been verified, it is reliable. When verification is used as a standard for reliability, truth becomes an ideal to be sought rather than one that has been attained. In order to read critically, an attitude of suspending judgment and of questioning ideas presented on the printed page must be developed. Instead of working with "true" statements, students must learn to work with reliable statements that may prove to be false as more information is accumulated. Frequently, this produces an uncomfortable feeling among students since they have often been taught to believe that everything they see in print is true. Thus, they must learn that printed beliefs are at best probable and tentative. Two aspects of reliability are the writer's use of words and the use of unsound premises to influence the reader.

In order to judge the reliability of printed material, the reader must examine the way the author has used words. Even writers of highly-regarded publications will use words occasionally that color the facts and influence the reader. Some writers purposely strive to confound an issue with the use of appealing and emotionally-laden language. Many people have been stirred to action through such words as communist, racist, and un-American. The approach is to arouse an unfavorable reaction to a person by associating him with an unpopular group. This device appeals to the biases and prejudices of the reader by using words that can evoke a reaction that the writer desires. The reader must learn to separate words which have the power to produce feelings from words which merely serve to identify referents. He must learn that he is subject to being influenced through the printed page and must determine how various authors are attempting to influence him.

In addition to using words to color the facts, authors may also use unsound premises which are often difficult to detect. The conditions may be understood, but the claims made are often exaggerated or unwarranted in some way. In this event, there is faulty reasoning on the part of the writer. The term fallacy is often used to refer to the faulty reasoning of an argument.

Prevalent fallacies are faulty generalizations, faulty analogies, assuming the cause "post hoc," and many others. To illustrate this type of unreliability let us consider an example of assuming the cause "post hoc." Attributing a stomach ache to the last meal eaten infers a causal relationship which may or may not exist. Or consider walking under a ladder, then failing an exam, and assuming that walking under the ladder was the cause of the failure. Fearnside and Holther's book, *Fallacy: The Counterfeit of Argument*, describes this fallacy and many others and also provides practical examples which may be used in high school classes.

Teaching Reliability. In order to illustrate a teaching situation, let us assume that the teacher and class have before them a news report, an editorial, or a pamphlet which they suspect uses biased words or has unsound premises. How can they verify or disprove the suspicion?

One of the first concerns must be the source of the information. Some questions to be considered are: (1) What is the source of the passage? (2) Who has control over the source? (3) What is his connection with the subject matter under consideration? (4) From past performances, how reliable is the source? Some publications have established reputations for honest, unbiased reporting. Others are known for exaggerating the facts. When readers have a choice of sources, it is desirable to teach them to refer to those which are trustworthy.

Also, printed materials may be classified into primary or secondary reports. Typical secondary reports are found in newspapers, textbooks and objective analyses of various kinds. Statements found in primary reports are often more reliable than inferences made from them or reports based on them.

A second criterion for determining the reliability of a passage is the qualification of the writer. A person who is qualified to give testimony should display special competence on the topic being discussed, should limit his writing to the topic for which he is qualified, and should be a fairly well established authority in his field.

Another criterion for examining the reliability of a passage is whether statements made can be corroborated by other sources. Ennis (*1*) reported that statements made in any source tend to be more reliable if they are statements of direct observation, are supported by other sources, or can be corroborated.

After the class members have investigated the source of the article, the authority of the writer, and have checked the statements with other references, they are in a better position to determine if the statements are dependable and trustworthy—that is, reliable.

Summary and Conclusion

The logical dimension of critical reading has often been neglected in our secondary schools. A better understanding of two aspects of logic—namely, validity and reliability—is prerequisite to growth in critical reading. In analyzing the validity of a given passage, it is necessary to determine if the argument is internally consistent, i.e., if the conclusion follows necessarily from the premises. To accomplish this task, students must learn to strip the argument of any excess words, to make sure they have access to all the premises, and to determine the implied universality of the author's statements. However, it is not enough to determine if an argument is internally consistent or valid. The student must also establish whether the statements have any reliability or whether they are trustworthy. Criteria for checking the reliability of a passage should include adequacy of the source, authority of the writer and corroboration of the statements. When questions on logic pertaining to the reliability and validity of reading material are asked by students in high schools throughout the country we can be more confident of developing a nation of critical readers.

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(43) 2. Organizational Patterns and Materials in Secondary Reading Programs

When the invitation to serve on this panel was first accepted, it was felt that examination of issues of recent years of professional journals usually found pertinent for topics related to reading should reveal a considerable number of reports of research dealing with secondary school reading programs and instructional materials used in such programs. For purposes of this paper, all the issues from January, 1960, through December, 1965, of each of following fifteen journals were examined: *National Association of Secondary School Principals Bulletin, Clearing House, Education, English Journal, High Points, High School Journal, Journal of Education, Journal of Educational Psychology, Journal of Educational Research, Journal of Reading* (formerly *Journal of Developmental Reading*), *Journal of the Reading Specialist, Peabody Journal of Education, Reading Horizons, Reading Improvement* (formerly *High School Reading*), and *Reading Teacher*. The *International Reading Association Conference Proceedings* for the years of this period, 1960 through 1965, were also examined for research reports relevant to secondary reading programs and reading materials.

A considerable number of programs was found reported, many very briefly; but quite a few of these were not reports of research. As progress was made in reviewing journal issues, it became apparent that if a thorough or rigid standard for "research" reports were held to constantly, the number of pertinent articles found would be relatively small. It was, therefore, decided to include for purposes of this paper, in addition to real or actual research reports, all articles dealing with secondary reading programs which included at least some indication or presentation of results of evaluations of such programs. With use of this rough criterion of "research reports," thirty-seven pertinent articles or reports dealing with programs finally were found.

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It was anticipated that at least a few reports of research dealing exclusively or mainly with secondary reading materials would also be found. However, examination of each of the articles in each of the issues of the various sources previously identified resulted in the finding of only one actual research report dealing mainly with materials. This report was one presented by this panelist at the IRA Conference in Philadelphia two years ago (*5*:85-86). The study reported was an attempt to find out from fourteen publishers what they considered to be secondary "basal reading materials" and what "basal" materials they had available. A major conclusion reached, suffice it to say here, was that high school "basal reading series" are still very vaguely and indefinitely defined or identified. Fortunately, many of the articles concerning programs were found to have sections dealing with materials; so this information was used in the analyses involved in the preparation of this paper.

Of the thirty-seven articles relevant to programs, six were reports of surveys of programs in various regions of the country (*2; 3; 8; 13*:36-40; *29;* 31). Of the remaining thirty-one reports, slightly more than half appeared to have reporting of a particular program or programs as a major intent, rather than the reporting of research results (*1; 4; 7; 10; 11; 12; 14; 15; 16; 21; 22; 23; 25; 28; 33; 38*). Each of the rest of the articles was mainly concerned with evaluation of a specific program (*9; 17; 30; 33*) or an experimental program (*6; 19; 20; 26; 37*) or a comparison of different types of programs (*18:*102-104; *24; 34; 35; 36*).

Each of the thirty-seven reports of programs was analyzed in some detail with respect to information concerning a number of organizational aspects of secondary reading programs and instructional materials for such programs. A summary analysis for each of the indicated areas follows:

Most of the programs reported were specifically identified as being "developmental" programs. "Developmental" appeared to be applied in a broad way to a considerable variety of programs. A rough interpretation, based upon study of the various program reports, would be a program which is not mainly concerned with developing reading skills of students who are severely retarded with respect to such skills. A lesser number of specific programs was designated as being "remedial" or "corrective," while several other programs were reported as having both developmental and remedial phases or aspects. In a few instances, it was difficult to determine whether programs were developmental or remedial.

In a number of programs, the student participants did their reading work in "reading laboratories" (*e.g., 1; 4; 7; 10; 23; 25; 28; 32*). In most of these instances special reading teachers handled the reading program, although in a few cases special reading teachers worked in cooperation with the classroom teacher. At the senior high school level, a reading program was quite often part of a regular English class or English teachers were directly involved in the reading program in some way. The regular classroom teacher functioned as the reading instructor in a few of the junior high school level reading programs reported. In a number of programs, attempts were made (apparently successful ones) to teach reading skills through content subjects (*e.g., 6; 16; 19; 37; 38*).

No definite pattern as to grade levels at which programs were provided could be determined from a study of the reported programs. In the programs reported, reading classes were found to be provided at each of the various single grade levels, from seven through twelve, and at various combinations of two and three grade levels.

The length of a program, as well as frequency of meetings within a given period of time, was also found to vary considerably among the different programs. In this area, also, no clear-cut pattern could be discerned. In the various programs reported, the lengths ranged from three weeks to two years. A number of programs, especially at the senior high level, lasted from three to eight weeks. The frequencies of meetings ranged from once a week to fourteen times a week. The length of class periods also varied considerably.

Class size was also found to vary considerably, with nearly forty in a class in some instances. The class size was not given for a number of programs. Classes of 25 to 30 students were reported most frequently. Even in reported remedial programs, ten to twelve pupils per class appeared to be minimal.

Among other miscellaneous aspects revealed in the analyses was that teaching of study skills was included in a few programs (*1; 4; 17*). Summer programs were included in at least two reports (*1; 33*). In at least one reported program, students took time from their study periods for reading classes. A number of programs was definitely indicated as being voluntary in nature (*1; 7; 14; 25*). A few were identified as being compulsory (*e.g., 4; 16*). Compulsory or voluntary aspects were not indicated for a number of reported programs.

The materials used in the various programs reported were found to vary considerably. A variety of printed practice materials (workbook-type

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materials which may be used independently of any given basic book or in conjunction with or supplementary to a combination of other materials) was found to be used in quite a number of programs at both junior and senior high levels. A considerable number of programs also included work with various types of mechanical aids, particularly tachistoscopic and pacer-type instruments and reading films. The use of no mechanical equipment was clearly indicated for a few (reportedly successful) programs (*6; 18:*102-104; *21; 26;* 36). Basal reading series were definitely indicated as being used in only three reported programs, all at the junior high level (*16; 20; 35*). Special materials were prepared for some specific programs (*14; 17; 19; 25; 38*). Reading of recreational-reading-type books, "for fun" or for free reading, was indicated for several other programs (*27; 30; 33; 37*).

Comparisons of findings obtained in the various surveys found reported (*2; 3; 8; 13; 29; 39*) with the type of analyses being reported here reveal a number of similarities; however, a number of differences and seeming discrepancies or contradictions may also be observed. For example, DeBoer (*13*), in referring to an Illinois survey at this conference six years ago, commented favorably on high interest books as one of the chief remedial procedures employed. Such practice was indicated in only a very few of the programs analyzed for the present report. The chairman of this session, in his survey of five North Central states a few years ago, found that schools tended to rely on one text in secondary reading programs (in contrast to what the present analysis reveals) (*31*). Simmons also commented upon discrepancies between what he found actually being done in secondary reading programs and what he and others might wish were being done.

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b. Through Methods and Materials

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Judging from the ferment in the popular press and professional journals, we appear to be on the brink of changes in the structure and media of education that should affect our whole approach to teaching.

The "new look" in secondary education is keynoted by the phrase "effective utilization of the teaching staff."[1] Behind this phrase lies theorizing about and experimentation in team teaching and flexibility of class size. New media for conveying instruction—television and teaching machines, for example—are being explored. "Team learning," as well as "team teaching," is offered along with "independent learning," as ideas for more economical use of pupils' and teachers' time.

The "old look" in education reminds us that classroom practices resist change, or respond to only superficial alteration. Single-textbook teaching persists in the secondary school in spite of all reasonable argument against it. Its adjunct, the assignment-recitation method, flourishes still. On the other hand, the unit method, an old idea in educational theory, makes slow inroads. Indeed, before it has established a beachhead, the unit approach may be significantly altered by the restructuring of staff.[2] The lecture method, never really dead in the high school, may be revitalized by educational television, or merely retrenched.

How do these methods, old and new, relate to the teaching of reading? What changes are they effecting in instructional materials? Do they offer feasible solutions to the problem of differentiating instruction to meet the needs of learners ?

Just as reading cannot be taught in isolation from content subjects, neither can any one of the methods, which we shall describe in this article as separate entities, be applied as exclusive means.

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[1] J. Lloyd Trump, *Images of the Future*, a publication of the Commission on the Experimental Study of the Utilization of the Staff in the Secondary School (200 Gregory Hall, Urbana, Illinois), 1959.

[2] See outline of the "Rutgers Plan" described in brochure announcing 1960 summer workshop at Rutgers University.

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Good teaching wisely selects from all acceptable methods the right combinations for effective learning in specific situations. "Acceptable" methods encompass sound principles of learning. Simply stated, these include: (a) accurate measurement of pupils' general reading levels and their specific skills; (b) provisions for readiness and motivation; (c) instruction paced to pupils' learning rate; (d) sequence and continuity; (e) review and continuous evaluation.

Lecture Demonstration Methods in Team Teaching

In secondary schools, "team teaching" has been applied to situations in which several teachers of a subject such as English plan cooperatively to save teaching time and improve methods. Several classes may be grouped into large audiences for oral-aural presentations by one teacher, freeing other teachers to work with individuals and small groups. Lectures to large groups are followed up by small-group discussions and practice. Can this idea be adapted to teaching reading and study skills?

The introduction and review of study techniques are appropriate subjects for large-group presentations. A good film or kinescope, using lecture and demonstration techniques, can show students "how to do it" in such skills as using textbooks, dictionaries, encyclopedias, the card catalog and other reference tools; applying study techniques like *SQ3R;* studying spelling; and improving rate of comprehension. Such films as "How to Read Novels," "How to Judge Facts," and "How Effective Is Your Reading?" (all Coronet) are just as effective when viewed by 15 pupils as by 25. Similarly, lectures, live or on video tape (but in either case *live*), can introduce students to phases of vocabulary development, semantics, and critical reading. It makes sense to develop by teamwork five excellent presentations for large-group listening and viewing instead of twenty-five mediocre lectures for normal class sizes.

Precedents for teaching students *about* reading are found in text materials like Strang's *Study Type of Reading Exercises* and Baker's *Reading Skills,* which use essays on the reading-study process as their content. Parallels are found also in books on semantics, language, and critical thinking. Written materials have one advantage over the aural-oral; students practice their skills as they read about them. However, the compensating advantage of audio-visual media is that ideas dramatically presented may make deeper and longer-lasting impressions.

Nevertheless, talking about reading, even when the talk is enlivened by artful demonstrations and concrete illustrations, is of limited value in improving skills, since mass methods must ignore individual differences and the principle of "learning by doing." Large-group presentations utilizing teaching teams and television undoubtedly have a place in high school reading programs, but their usefulness is limited to two phases: motivating and summarizing.

In another sense, team teaching is a concept of vital importance to the secondary reading program. Because reading cuts through all curriculum areas, improvement of reading has always been a task for team teaching. Or it should have been. For even though reading may be taught as an "extra subject," instruction is ineffectual unless it is integrated with the teaching of content. Accomplishing this integration requires teamwork. When every secondary teacher really becomes a teacher of reading, duplication of effort will result unless teachers systematically plan their shared responsibility. To cite an obvious example, informal testing, a necessary basic procedure, consumes unnecessary time when every teacher attacks it independently. The sensible approach is to divide the testing tasks and pool results.

Lecture-demonstration methods may be improved by team teaching, but they can be effective, too, in classes of normal size, offering easier pupil-teacher contact. As an example, here is a teacher, fully aware of the range of individual differences in his class, introducing the study of main ideas:

He begins with illustrations of the concept of the "main idea," substituting pictures for verbal context and eliciting titles that encompass all the details shown and are yet not too broad. Then he visualizes the concept that a main idea "just fits" by drawing a chart; for example, a wheel showing the main idea as the rim and the details as spokes. His next step leads pupils to suggest main topics for lists of sub-topics. Next he introduces paragraphs written at the reading level of the poorest reader in the class, or, to obviate word recognition problems, he reads the paragraphs orally. (According to the abilities of his group, he may condense or expand these plans to fit one or several periods of class time.)

Thus, through lecture, demonstrations, whole-group practice and discussion, he teaches what a main idea is, the reasons for developing skills in recognizing main ideas, and how to do it. This method takes pupils just so far. Development of real skill will come through practice on materials suited to different levels of reading ability.

Team Learning

Some reading skills may be practiced more efficiently by pupils working in teams instead of individually. Applying word analysis skills, reviewing meaning vocabulary, studying spelling, and strengthening oral recall after silent reading are natural topics for pairs of students. As another illustration, teams of five or six pupils of similar achievement in rate and comprehension take the same test in McCall-Crabbs' *Standard Test Lessons in Reading* (or in any one of a dozen other sources). At the end of three minutes, a pupil reads the correct answers from a key and conducts discussion of any disputed items. Pupils show each other why answers are right or wrong. When group resources fail, the teacher is consulted. Since a teacher cannot be available to all groups at one time, a recorder summarizes results for the teacher so that he can note types of errors that must be corrected by direct teaching.

Pooling information from several sources is another opportunity for team learning. To be successful, pupils must have learned previously how to take notes, summarize, and report to others. In team-learning activities of this kind, critical reading skills are enhanced, as pupils question the reliability of sources; examine facts for completeness, accuracy, timeliness, and relevance; and discriminate among well-founded conclusions, biased judgments, and unsupported opinions.

Team learning provides for practice and use of skills in purposeful activities. Direct teaching must precede and accompany practice. Teachers must sense when groups need guidance and move quickly to prevent them from floundering or practicing errors. Pupils, too, must become sensitive to breakdown in group processes and seek aid when needed.

Independent Learning

The aim of all education is to promote independent learning. Frequently, however, we lose sight of this aim as we spoon-feed youngsters from textbooks and standard courses of study, overdirecting their learning process and leaving them limp on college doorsteps, unable to fend for themselves. But as we react against spoon-feeding, we run the danger of abandoning pupils to their own—and the publishers'—devices. To avoid the malpractices of either extreme, we should employ "independent learning" methods only when students are ready and the tasks are suitable.

The development of mature, independent readers is the goal of the reading teacher. He moves gradually toward that goal. For example, pupils need to read with a purpose. At first, the teacher sets the purpose, usually in the form of guide questions. Then he shows pupils how to preview reading material and gauge for themselves the questions that may be answered therein. He guides them through many practices in which they survey selections for likely questions and then read the material carefully, not only to find the answers but also to judge their ability to spot appropriate questions in the survey step. He shows them how this "previewing for purpose" applies to many different kinds of study-type reading. He discusses their techniques with them and helps them to evaluate results. He encourages students to exchange ideas on techniques, knowing they will accept each other's advice more readily than his. And he repeats the whole process frequently, aware that habits, good or bad, grow only with practice.

All this is a far cry from turning pupils loose in self-help materials and hoping that the "teacher in the box" — or the workbook — will take over. There is a place, of course, for self-directed practice in skills development, and the appearance of differentiated materials that pupils can handle with a minimum of guidance has been a boon to the secondary reading program. However, self-help materials work best in the more mechanical aspects of the reading process — those skills that require minimal direction. I doubt their effectiveness for developing "reading as reasoning." Snippets and snatches of test exercises may improve pupil's ability to take objective tests. Their usefulness in developing the ability to organize and evaluate seems negligible.

Materials for independent study are various: hardbound textbooks like Hovious's *New Trails in Reading;* workbooks and test booklets that accompany anthologies, basal readers, and subject-matter textbooks; skill-building series; teacher-made exercises; and the file boxes of the several *SRA Reading Laboratories*. The do-it-yourself features include multi-level reading selections, preliminary tests to establish starting levels, self-correcting exercises, progress charts, and mastery tests. Teachers with time and energy can organize their own "laboratories" of multi-level materials, selecting from many sources; or they can purchase ready-made kits. It seems likely that the success of the SRA *Laboratories* will stimulate a publishing trend. Eventually, exercises for self-improvement in reading will be fitted to teaching machines, and the "teacher in the box" will be a reality.

The merits of self-help materials cannot be judged wholesale. In line with technical advances in textbook publishing, the newer publications are generally attractive in appearance and high in adolescent interests. The quality of the study aids is what separates the good from the mediocre. These should be rigorously examined on the following points: Are the directions clear and of the same readability as the text? Do objective-type exercises encourage guessing? Do questions test recall of unnecessary detail, or do they really stretch pupils' thinking abilities?

Materials for independent learning are misused by teachers who treat them as a complete reading program. Like films, pacers, tachistoscopes and other gadgets, "reading laboratories" provide a shot in the arm. Although usually highly motivating in the beginning, their motivational values depreciate with continued, unimaginative use. Lacking sensitive guidance, an independent study program can promote sloppy work habits, meaningless drill and waste motion, and learning of errors.

From the Single Textbook to Differentiated Instruction

Can the subject-matter teacher who uses a single textbook adapt instruction to learners' needs? He can make a beginning. First, he can analyze the textbook to determine its general readability and the specific skills needed to master its contents. Next he can test his pupils' competence in these skills by informal tests based on the textbook. Together with standardized test scores, observations, and cumulative records, the results of informal testing blueprint the instructional tasks ahead.

When these results show that the textbook is too difficult for some and too easy for others, the teacher must look for supplementary materials. For below-average readers, he seeks materials that present basic concepts more simply and clearly than the class text. These materials include (a) subject-matter textbooks designed for lower grade levels; (b) easy trade books and pamphlets related to topics of the course; (c) audio-visual aids. For accelerated students, he collects references that extend and enrich the learnings of the basic text.

This is a long-term project. In the meantime, he has one textbook. Knowing that many of his pupils will have difficulty mastering concepts and understanding vocabulary, he prepares for any reading to be done in the textbook by (a) oral discussion and explanation of important concepts; (b) presentation of vocabulary orally and visually to help pupils with word attack and meaning before they meet these words in the textbook; (c) setting purposes for reading.

In setting purposes, he provides his slow learners with simpler guide questions that direct their attention to major ideas on a literal level of comprehension. Many of these ideas will be found in summaries and boldface headings—the built-in outline of the chapter. For abler students, he selects questions that focus on *why* and *how* and demands independent thinking in following the author's organization and in evaluating ideas.

Wherever possible, silent reading of the text should be done under the teacher's supervision so that he can give help to individuals. When reading the text is impossible for the slowest in the class, the teacher, or able students, may summarize the material orally. In the discussion following silent reading, less is expected from the poorer readers both in breadth and depth of comprehension.

These suggestions for the one-textbook teacher are expedients meant to suffice until he is ready to move into unit teaching, a plan which, most educators agree, offers the best solution to the problem of adapting to individual differences in the content fields. When the teacher requires reading from several sources, as he does in the unit method, he must take time to teach students how to determine their purposes in reading, how to select reading techniques in accordance with these purposes, how to vary their rate of reading to suit different types of materials and different purposes, how to select ideas relevant to purpose, and how to aid recall by note-taking and outlining.

Team Teaching Again

The foregoing discussion of methods for teaching reading, in the special reading class and in the content fields, forces the conclusion that reading development in the secondary school is a team task. No one method is sufficient; nor can a satisfactory combination of methods be achieved by one teacher working alone. But effective methods, adapted to the strengths and weaknesses of teachers as well as learners, can be fused into a continuous, sequential, integrated program by teachers who work together under able leadership.

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3. The Use of Audio-Visual Aids in Independent Study

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MOST evolutionary processes result in a proliferation of the forms or usage of the evolving innovation. The use of audio-visual aids in educational techniques is no exception. Where originally AV aids were designed to meet the needs of *teachers* in presenting a body of knowledge to the learner in a lecture-demonstration fashion, we now find them employed to meet the individual needs of *students.*

The proliferation of the types of AV aids has made possible the shift in emphasis from large group instruction in which the material to be learned is presented mainly to the average learner in the group. This technique is usually accompanied by a loss of motivation to the more gifted pupil and the confusion of the slow learner, since the materials used in the presentation are rarely versatile enough to meet the needs of all the groups. The shift of emphasis to which I refer is toward individualized instruction through the use of independent study materials (ISM). These should be sufficiently versatile to provide that approach to the subject matter being taught which is best suited to each student's abilities, rate of knowledge absorption, cognitive pathways by which knowledge is interpreted, and level of interest. We are now aware that there are as many different ways to teach as there are teachers, and we are beginning to realize that there are as many ways to learn as there are pupils.

Collette and Thurber *(4)* have stated that no teaching is accomplished unless the student has learned a new way to think as a part of the process. The teaching of that new way to think, especially in the science fields, has been the major concern of most of the curriculum development studies and resulting programs the past decade such as PSSC, CBA, CHEM Study, BSCS, ESS, etc.

In order that students might be allowed to lead themselves *inductively* to the discovery of knowledge, audio-visual techniques providing experience situations

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have been designed for all of these programs to *precede* any lectures by the teacher or the reading of textual material. The ancient order of pedagogy—read, lecture, demonstrate, drill, test, and review has been replaced by observe, analyze, conclude, discuss, expand, and implement. The reading of those textbook materials which are not directions for the use of materials in the experience situations provided is assigned *last* rather than *first*. As a result, the student enters the reading activity with a background of cognitive association which the old techniques could not furnish.

Audio-Visual Techniques

In science, the most successful independent study technique is the *experience situation* in which the student is provided with a device which he may manipulate and observe. As a result of analyzing his observations he may discover a relationship which allows him to predict the behavior of nature when the conditions to produce such behavior are again present. I call this kind of independent study material and the accompanying activity *tactile association situations* (TAS). A TAS need not require a piece of apparatus to manipulate. A sketch or picture to be analyzed is often all that is required in a situation which must be analyzed by the student in such a way that behavior in the situation is predicted. I have recently written a junior high school science text series in collaboration with Samuel Blanc and Abraham Fischler *(1)* incorporating the use of tactile association situations to provide an activity-centered approach to the teaching of science. Eric Rogers of Princeton *(5)* has attained a high degree of skill and sophistication in his teaching techniques, many of which have been placed on film for use in the PSSC secondary school physics course, utilizing TAS of this type in his text.

In those situations where apparatus is dangerous to use, expensive, or requires special skill in manipulation, the observations may be made by students through the medium of motion pictures. The continuous film loop is a recent innovation in this technique which allows the teacher to produce his own materials with ordinary home movie equipment. Most commercial offerings provide only the film loop lasting about four minutes per cycle and which is observed passively without any student involvement other than absorbing the visual stimuli. We have discovered at Jamesville-DeWitt High School that the degree of comprehension is greatly enhanced if the pupil is required to take part in the observed activity by making measurements from the filmed situation and subsequently analyzing that data as part of the independent study program.

The culmination of the incorporation of audio-visual techniques into the techniques of teaching is the eventual reversal of the time spent in formal lecture-demonstration presentation and the rearrangement of student learning time to provide for a maximum of independent study and a learning program designed to meet the learning requirements of *each* student. This is accomplished by the teacher who divorces himself from the five periods of thirty to sixty minutes each week for material presentation and who uses modules of instruction of twenty to thirty minutes in which *student* activity takes place during most of the learning process. This may be accomplished within the present framework of the seven, eight, or nine period day by dividing the class into groups of five to fifteen students and providing them with independent study materials specifically designed for their level of achievement or providing a TAS which they may examine at *their own rate of learning*. While one group is working on ISM in AV carrels, the other group(s) may be doing *research* in the library, working on *evaluation* of learning exercises, or *transferring knowledge* gained in one experience situation to another TAS provided for this purpose.

Students grouped homogeneously by ability, reading level or degree of motivation may meet with the teacher periodically for a seminar in which student-teacher contact provides opportunity for questions to be asked, concepts to be discussed and explored from new facets to provide enrichment, and for the teacher to identify problem situations in the cognitive and achievement processes as they develop. In such a learning environment, the large group lecture quickly recedes into a film watching, direction receiving, or examination taking period used seldom more than once a week. At Jamesville-DeWitt High School, I will be teaching a course in Physics next year and I am now teaching a course in Advanced Science and Mathematics in which the large group lecture time consumes only forty-five minutes out of each four and one-half hours of student contact time.

To implement these techniques and to meet the problem posed by the varying rates of learning and degrees of motivation among the students in a given course of study, the employment of the contract unit device is practically imperative. The use of *process words* such as "observe," "do," "explore," to describe each activity of the contract unit is advantageous as a motivation stimulus. Samples of contract units will be demonstrated and copies may be received upon request from the author.

Many teachers find that the implementation of these techniques provides an opportunity for the use of tutorial techniques similar to those which the Rhodes Scholar Program employs. If the number of students involved limits individual tutorial time, a *taped tutorial* has been demonstrated to not only be feasible but to provide the same degree of achievement as the live tutorial technique while stimulating the student to verbalize on the concepts being studied beyond the degree that such verbalization is achieved in the "live" tutorial.

In the taped tutorial, Socratic questioning is provided by a teacher-prepared audio or video tape. The student then responds into a tape recorder in his study carrel to the stimulus at his own rate, in his own words and without the "pressure" which direct confrontation produces on the student. As a result the response is more relaxed, more sincere and usually more verbose than in other forms of response stimulus.

Outcomes of ISM Research

Our studies have supported the findings of Travers *et al (6)* that time compression may be enhanced by the use of TAS in conjunction with visual materials and audio tapes or teacher directed *queries* and that most learning situations are improved by utilizing more than one sense modality in the learning situation to produce a significant difference in the achievement of students over lecture-demonstration techniques at the 5 percent level. It is also interesting to note that the difference is most significant when experimenting with these newer techniques on low ability students, underachiever readers, and slow learners, rather than with the high ability students. In other words, the gifted student is able to learn in spite of the teacher.

A greater degree of success in guiding the student to recognize his own abilities has been achieved since the incorporation of these techniques into the secondary school program. At the same time, a more realistic attitude concerning the nature of the material learned and its transfer to other situations is achieved. For example, prior to the implementation of these techniques into the physical science program in the high school, the attrition rate of entering freshmen in college aspiring to become physicists was 60 percent. It is now below 10 percent, even though the level of difficulty of college programs in physics has significantly increased and the degree of specialization within the discipline has increased markedly. Upon completion of his high school program, a student now has a feeling for the machinations of scientific investigation, a greater depth of understanding concerning the job of the scientist, and a security in the mental processes involved in scientific work which students previously lacked by their own admission at the time their original aspirations changed.

Most startling of all the outcomes investigated is that of *time compression.* Material presented in forty-five minutes of class time through the lecture-demonstration techniques is now mastered to a greater degree through ISM techniques in less than half the time in the majority of situations where they were utilized. For example, a laboratory situation which previously required four hours to collect the necessary data was presented through the medium of an ISM program employing a film loop and accompanying audio tape and worksheets.

Instruction in the use of the slide rule accomplishes in three twenty minute ISM programs what used to be taught through traditional classroom techniques in four forty-five minute classes.

When pictures have been *"compressed"* for presentation in TAS along the lines described by Colin Cherry *(3)*, the contribution made by pictorial visual stimuli apparently is contrary to the findings of Bourisseau, Davis and Yamamoto *(6)*. Stick drawings such as those utilized by Rogers were found to increase verbal comprehension significantly at the 5 percent level of difference.

The retention of knowledge gained through the herein described techniques was found to be significantly greater when compared with control groups over a ten month period. An extension of this comparison beyond one academic year has yet to be made. Although the degree of retention does decrease with time, the ability to transfer that knowledge does not appear to decrease at the same rate. Some measurements indicate that the degree of transfer may increase with the passage of time.

Of all the outcomes of the utilization of these techniques, however, the most immediate is the increase in student motivation to learn, the change in attitude toward the learning situation enhancing enjoyment of the process of learning, and the readiness with which students accept a more mature attitude and demonstrate a more sincere interest in the task of acquiring knowledge. It is a pleasure to work with students who are eager to learn and who demonstrate daily their joy in participation in the program provided for them.

Problems

The average time required to prepare and produce a 20 minute ISM program incorporating video tape, film or slides, and audio tape and accompanying worksheets and guides is eight hours.

These techniques are not readily mastered by most inexperienced teachers. And finally, almost all teachers—neophyte and master teachers alike—find that at least one program must be produced before the techniques of production are learned. In other words, a lecture and demonstration about these processes and techniques is no more sufficient for teachers than it is for their students. Even we need a TAS in the form of producing a program ourselves to master the learning task.

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C. SECONDARY LEVEL

1. Critical Problems in Improving Readability of Materials

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THE PROBABILITY that a missive hereinafter referred to as "said missive" will induce in the reader the firing of appropriate cell assemblies that facilitate comprehension of said missive is higher (at the X level) if said missive is superbly constructed than if said missive is inappropriately constructed . . . *ad infinitum, ad nauseum*. . . .

Would you believe: A well-written paragraph is easier to understand than a poorly-written paragraph? Would you believe: Write "good" and be understood?

How do you write "good" to be understood? You write to attract your reader and to put your ideas across; you write interestingly and clearly. And if you fail to write clearly, you run the risk of being ignored or misunderstood. And pity the poor high school students who must read such writing.

Struggling with Reading Materials

Many pupils have to struggle with impossible reading tasks. Smith and Heddens *(8)* found that experimental mathematics materials designed for use in the elementary schools were too hard for the assigned grade levels.

Belden and Lee *(1)* found that of five chemistry textbooks selected for use with high school sophomores, none could be read by half of these students. Research points out that other high school texts are difficult.

To convert these cold facts to warm feeling I checked the readability of a newly-published world history book de-

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signed for use in the high school. It was a beautiful, seemingly well-written book. Readability score? College graduate level!

At the college level the problem is even worse. Major and Collette *(4)* found that the ten most widely-used general biology books were much too difficult. They were written one or two grade levels higher than the reading comprehension level of superior or average freshmen. Anyone who has taught general psychology knows that several of the widely-used texts are notoriously difficult.

Playing "teaching at Oxford." Let us assume we can get authors to write high school texts that the average reader can understand. How will the students make the transition to college level material as such material is presently written? Do you know that freshmen and sophomores in college are required to read such books as Tawny's *Religion and the Rise of Capitalism?* Now, I love this book dearly, and I can picture various professors being very excited about it, but not many freshmen. They find it very rough sledding. Exhibit A, page 107: "Profuse in expressions of sympathy, its strategy was to let the cannon balls of Christian Socialism spend themselves on the yielding down of official procrastination, and its first reply was normally *qu'on y pense un peu*." Tawney held forth at the University of London and at Oxford.

The average IQ of freshmen in British universities is 128, in American colleges, 110-115. Professors in the average American college would do well to realize that they are not teaching in Oxford or Michigan or Reed. They should not play "teaching at Oxford" by loading down average students with Tawney and Hegel. The very brilliant freshman can read these men; and students in advanced courses in economics, history, and philosophy will read them—but at the right time.

Meanwhile, more appropriate materials should be selected for the average freshmen in the average American college. I do not favor "easy" colleges. But remember: if you are going to stretch minds, stretch them; don't snap them!

Make Your Writing More Readable

Perhaps you will be writing educational materials for young people. If so, you may find useful the following guidelines for making ideas readable.

1 *Write from a well-organized plan.* First of all, know what you are trying to accomplish. What ideas are you trying to get across to your reader? What learning outcomes do you expect your writing will produce? Organize the related ideas into a meaningful framework such as an outline. Then you are ready to write.

2 *Pay attention to your reader; communicate ideas.* Your reader is all important. You want him to read what you have to say and profit from it. To do this you grab him with a clever opening and unfold one interesting fact and insight after another. In physics books? Especially in physics books! And remember, you are not trying to hide your ideas from him; you want to communicate with him. So get on his wave length and stay there.

3 *Write in an easy-to-read, dynamic style.* You will be read when you pay attention to the kinds of sentences you write. Your writings should be characterized by: (1) clear statement, (2) graceful statement, (3) short sentences, generally, (4) few long words, (5) a not too abstract style (5:159), (6) nouns and verbs.

4 *Clear statement is achieved in several ways.*

1. Cut out needless words. Strunk *(10: 17)* says, "vigorous writing is concise. A sentence should contain no unnecessary words, a paragraph no unnecessary sentences . . ." Note the example provided by Gunning: *(2:95)*

Original version

"We solicit any recommendations that you wish to make and you may be assured that any such recommendations will be given our careful consideration."

Trimmed-down version

"Please give us your suggestions. We shall consider them carefully."

You see what to do. Blue pencil your writing. Cut out words that are not working for you.

2. Positive statement aids clarity. Make definite assertions. Use colorful, dynamic language. Listen to the historian John Clark Ridpath in *The History of the World:*

Two Indians followed the trail of the

> enemy, and discovered their hiding-place. The French were on the alert and flew to arms. "Fire!" was the command of Washington, and the first volley of a great war went flying through the forest.

3. Always strive for clarity. Clarity may not always be the principal mark of a good style; "but since writing is communication, clarity can only be a virtue" *(10:65)*.
4. Amplify concepts that are far-removed from the reader's experience. Amplifying concepts aids comprehension *(7:445)*. Too often writers lack the space in their books to expand upon ideas. Because of competitive concept stuffing, they must treat a given number of topics, no matter how incompletely.

5 *Graceful statement makes writing easy to read.* Munson points to the importance of adopting the appropriate tone in your writing:

> For each piece of writing there is implied a particular situation. The situation consists of a particular writer, a particular subject, a particular audience, and a particular occasion. The interplay of these should determine tone (*5:*188).

Note, also, the importance of tone in government writings. Rewriting some government bulletins and addresses might result in using words which fail as honorifics—"a form of respectful address used to convey status." For example, in rewriting a presidential report, the word "tell" was substituted for "apprise." However, a government official said this substitution would not increase the effective communication; it would "arouse a somewhat hostile reaction through its bluntness" *(9:* 143).

4 *Short sentences usually increase readability.* Research tells us the short sentence is effective. Compare the structure and sentence length of these two versions of Ephesians 3:1,2:

Revised Standard Version

> "For this cause I Paul, the prisoner for Jesus Christ on behalf of you Gentiles—assuming that you have heard of the stewardship of God's grace that was given to me for you . . ."

Project New Testament

> "For this reason I, Paul, am a prisoner of Christ Jesus for the sake of you non-Jews. For I am sure that you have heard how God gave me His free mercy and love to share with you" *(3)*.

7 *Use few long words.* Strunk warns, *"Avoid fancy words."* "Do not be tempted by a twenty-dollar word when there is a ten-center handy, ready and able" *(10:* 63). If you use an easy word list as a guide to writing, be warned that a word rated "easy" in a word list may be "hard" in certain contexts. Dale's *Children's Knowledge of Words* rates the difficulty of words according to meaning in various contexts.

The Gunning readability formula "counts" hard and easy polysyllable words the same. For example, in checking the readability of two versions of Ephesians, I found that the Revised Standard Version uses the word "comprehend," while the Project New Testament translation uses "understand." Dale's book shows "understand" to be much easier than "comprehend." However, the Gunning formula does not operate to credit "understand" as being easier.

You will not be able to avoid using some difficult words. After all, students must learn new vocabulary terms and concepts. You may introduce a word the average reader does not know if you explain it in some way or provide a meaningful context:

> Peter the Great devoted himself with assiduity (diligence) to the study of the sciences.
>
> He was careful about his *diction* or choice of words.

8 *Be specific, definite, and concrete*

With concrete and specific words in your verbal palette you can paint pictures that are vivid, precise, and colorful.

General

> "The patient was in a condition of torpor."
>
> "The Indians wreaked havoc on the settlement."

Specific and Concrete

> "The patient could hardly open his eyes. He scarcely knew his own name and was not a bit sure of where he was."
>
> "The Indians attacked the village, burned half the houses, and killed a third of the settlers."

9 *Ground your generalizations in specific facts*

You will need to make some generalizations when you write. One method is to develop your generalization on the basis of specific facts. Go from the specific facts to a general statement about those facts:

> The Indians attacked the village, burned half the houses, killed a third of the settlers, and terrorized the children. They wreaked havoc on the settlement.

Many scientific generalizations are developed in this inductive manner.

Many paragraphs are organized according to a deductive pattern. The topic sentence contains a generalization or the main idea of the paragraph. The rest of the paragraph provides concrete illustrations and details which support this idea. Following is a compact illustration in sentence form:

> The 1940's saw several important inventions developed in the United States: the atomic reactor, 1942; the automatic digital computer, 1944; and the transistor, 1948.

10 *Emphasize nouns and verbs.* Adjectives and adverbs tend to weaken writing; use them sparingly. Nouns and verbs "give to good writing its toughness and color" (*10:*58).

William Hale studied Woodrow Wilson's style; it was weak. Wilson did not use strong verbs. Wilson's failure to influence the American people is interesting in the light of Hale's finding that Wilson's style lacked punch (*2:*101).

Remember: strong verbs pack the power to make you a writer and your target a reader.

11 *Use special devices.* Topic headings, summaries, and enumeration appear to increase readability. However, students profit more from these devices when taught how to use them (*6:*16). Therefore, when you write for the high school student, insist on using these devices, and include a note to the teacher and the student on how to use them to best advantage. *Buena suerta,* er-uh, Good Luck!

Summary

Many of your students have to struggle with impossible reading tasks. Your students really begin to learn and to enjoy learning when (1) readable books are written for them, (2) their teachers select these readable books for classroom use.

Perhaps you are writing educational materials. You will produce readable books and articles when you follow the guidelines for effective writing. These guidelines suggest you write from a well-organized plan, pay attention to your reader, communicate ideas, write in an easy-to-read, dynamic style, and use special devices such as topic headings and summaries.

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3. Improving Textbook Interpretation

THE TEXTBOOK CONTINUES to be the most widely used instructional medium in American schools. Whether it is employed as a single class source to be intensively mastered or as one of several collateral sources to be extensively surveyed and integrated, the problems remain the same. Do students experience difficulty with textbook interpretation? What implications do the research findings hold for improving the use of the textbook as an instructional resource?

Student Difficulty with Textbook Interpretation

Thorndike's 1917 study of mistakes in paragraph reading was one of the first empirical studies of student deficiency in reading text-like material (*21*:323-332). He concluded that difficulty with text-type paragraphs emanated from one or more of three sources: a] individual words incorrectly associated with their literal meanings; b] improper adjustment of meaning elements when formed into larger linguistic units such as phrases or sentences; and, most significantly, c] neglect in validating the resulting ideas against a personal act or purpose for the reading.

Ten years later, Gerald Yoakam published *Reading and Study,* a comprehensive survey of the literature on the two processes and their related problems (*23*). Yoakam included in this volume a personal investigation of the influence of a single reading upon immediate and delayed recall when the experimental selections included both social studies textbook content and narrative content. He drew the following conclusions from the students' average performance: a] the pretest of the content indicated that the pupils were familiar with 10-20 percent of the ideas; b] discounting this previous knowledge, the net retention ranged from 20-33 percent of ideas on immediate recall and from 10-15 percent on delayed recall of the several factual articles; and c] the re-

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sults were substantially better with the narrative material—30 percent of the story ideas were known before reading, immediate retention was 80 percent, and delayed recall averaged 70 percent after a lapse of one to two months.

More recent data involving both good and poor secondary readers indicate that textbook difficulty continues to the point of defeat and antagonism. Penty's interviews with poor tenth grade readers (reading grade equivalent range of 4.3 to 6.9) revealed both an active dislike for those content areas in which reading provided the basic source of class activity, as well as an awareness that reading difficulty was the basic source of their dislike for the subject. These students also reported greater problems with understanding and retention than with word skills (*12:* 19-30).

Similar problems are reported by better secondary readers, although the specific pattern is influenced by the nature of the assignment. Michaels compared the reading difficulties of college-preparatory high school juniors who received either Pattern A (extensive reading assignments in varied sources to find information on specific topics) or Pattern B (intensive page assignments in a text to answer questions supplied and implied) (*11:*16-20). Both groups doubted that history content was within their range of reading ability. More of the members of the extensive reading group expressed such doubt (63 percent) than did those in the intensive text group (50 percent). The two groups reported somewhat different types of specific difficulties encountered. The difficulties mentioned most frequently by the extensive assignment group included: a] identification of relative importance of and relationships between ideas; b] inability to find sufficient information; c] inability to summarize or generalize on data; and d] inadequate background to interpret data in references. The intensive text assignment group mentioned somewhat different comprehension problems: a] difficulty with retention of information; b] difficulty with general comprehension; c] concentration problems due to lack of interest; and d] problems in denotation because of the density of facts in the text.

The Adequacy of Study Techniques

Students report little planned instruction and substained practice in study techniques as a part of regular content area instruction in the secondary situation. Many students equate a single reading of a chapter with effective study. The most frequently reported additional textbook

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study techniques consist of a] rereading and b] underlining (where permitted), followed by the noting techniques of c] abstracting, d] outlining, and e] summarizing. A systematic study procedure is more likely to be employed by the relatively small number of students who have taken a special college preparatory course in "efficient reading and study" (*6*).

Studies have confirmed doubt concerning the value of rereading a textbook assignment as rereading is commonly employed. Good found no significant improvement of undirected rereading over a single reading of factual content (*5*). Germane's experimental group, employing a single reading followed by mental summary of answers to questions, was superior by 54 percent accuracy to the control group which spent equivalent time in undirected rereading (*4*:103-112).

The results of other independent study techniques run in a similar vein. Arnold's subjects demonstrated little relative superiority (or general competency) in the techniques of underlining, outlining, writing summaries, reading, and rereading when used on selections of equated difficulty (*1*:449-457). Christensen and Stordahl compared the effect of including six different organizational aids (outlines, underlined parts, pre- or post-summary, statement headings and question headings) within the text of their moderate length experimental selections. The lack of comparative difference seemed related to the subjects' report of ignoring these aids (*2*:65-74). Investigations such as Salisbury's further suggest that the issue may be less a matter of comparative superiority of technique than it is of efficiency with any particular technique (*17*:111-116). Using high school subjects, Salisbury provided daily lessons in making notes of an outline nature for six weeks. Not until the end of the period did the experimental group become significantly superior in ability to comprehend study materials and in study performance in various high school courses.

Robinson feels that students will improve reading-study efficiency if taught the use of a specific reading-study model such as the SQ3R method. Using this technique, he has produced experimental evidence of superiority over unguided reading in both test performance and the ability to predict examination items—a most practical talent (*16*).

It appears, then, that without systematic training and practice in specific and general procedures, the secondary student is unlikely to improve upon the rather low level of understanding he gains from a first reading of his textbook. Undirected rereading appears to be the least effective of the study-learning skills. Hardly more effective is the

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mechanical, uncritical use of underlining and outlining. The value in teaching a study technique seems to increase substantially when emphasis is placed upon recognizing the idea relationships represented through the study technique. Practice to the point of automatic performance of the study mechanics frees the student to concentrate upon the ideas in the textbook selection.

The Useful Elements of Purpose, Preview, and Recall

There is good evidence that intensity and precision in the identification of a personal purpose in content reading exerts considerable influence upon immediate and delayed recall. A study list of questions produces better recall than does undirected reading (*8*:361-371). Questions given prior to reading a selection and just prior to the segment containing the information produce better results than questions given after reading (*22*:321-359). The use of feedback direction such as rereading to correct errors of interpretation also increases interpretation (*7*:119-125). Apparently good scholars and students with high standardized reading test scores need instruction on how to make flexible use of reading purpose as much as their peers with less general academic talent (*13*:193-200). The profit is gained in terms of comprehension per unit of time as well as comprehension per assignment (*15*:196-202).

The studies of Yoakam (*23*) and McClusky (*10*:521-529), like those of Robinson, substantiate the value of purposeful preview. Such a procedure seems to develop a more receptive reading-learning set, provides a familiarity with the idea scope and organization as well as the author's style, and results in greater speed of comprehension and accuracy of recall. The value, however, seems to depend upon the reader's personal acceptance of the value of the procedure.

Retention can be stayed, if not completely thwarted. As in original learning, purposeful review is important. Testing (whether by teacher or self) is particularly useful when it can be employed rather immediately after original learning and again at increasing time intervals (*20*:641-656). Otherwise, some form of reimpression (reading) is more effective (*19*:665-675). Meaningful organization of the material appears crucial to longer span retention.

Conclusion

Experimental evidence and pupil and teacher reports indicate that significant difficulty with the textbook as a reading-learning source continues today as Yoakam reported in 1928. We have learned a good many things about teaching reading-study skills and about better use of the content area resources in the intervening years. We need to learn more. However, our professional literature contains a great deal of information about the improvement of textbook interpretation which is seldom employed in the secondary school learning situation. It is commonly suggested that this is a factor which could be remedied by requiring professional courses in reading for secondary teachers. No doubt this would help. Nevertheless, such factors as instructional tradition, the nature of the content area textbook, and administrative convenience contribute to our backwardness in application. Not the least of such influences is the manner in which the use of the textbook fulfills the personal adjustment needs of the secondary teacher. The influence of teacher personality upon instructional procedure needs much investigation (*9:*116).

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5. Evaluating Materials for Reading Instruction at the Secondary Level

LEONARD JOLL

The market is flooded with instructional materials to be used with pupils in grades 7-12. Why is it we frequently hear teachers complain about instructional materials? What criteria shall be used in selecting materials to do the job?

No set of materials can be expected to do everything for all pupils. We must select reading materials as we select our wardrobe. One would not think of wearing evening clothes to play golf, and skiing clothes are not for swimming. We must therefore select our instructional materials for reading only after we have determined the purpose for which they are to be used. If we examine the large number of offerings in the secondary curriculum we will realize that every pupil who is involved in these areas must be equipped to handle a large number of reading tasks. A single set of materials designed to meet all of these needs would tend to be very general and so great in volume that the average pupil would soon become discouraged.

We must carefully consider the pupils who are to receive the instruction. We are dealing with a group of young people at an age level who are rapidly changing, almost from day to day. With the rapid change in our everyday living, and the change in the pupils we teach, it behooves us to be alert in selecting materials that will do the instructional job and will interest and challenge the pupil. There is not a single one of us who watched or listened to the first astronautical expedition of Colonel Glenn who not only was thrilled by this great event but was greatly aware of the strides made by our scientists, and by the large number of terms that will soon become a part of our daily vocabulary. This great event has completely changed our concepts of time, distance, and space. If we are going to be working with alert, intelligent young people, then we must be just as alert, intelligent, and up-to-date in our selection of instructional materials.

What are the instructional jobs that need to be given prime concern at the secondary level? I would like to divide these skills into the areas of: (1) Vocabulary, (2) Organization, (3) Critical Thinking, (4) Appreciation, (5) Speed, (6) Comprehension, and (7) Word Attack. If we can determine the needs of pupils in terms of these categories, and keep in mind the type of pupil with whom we will be working, then we will be better able to select materials and evaluate their worth.

Every school should have an effective testing program. Many have a testing program *per se;* this does not mean it is necessarily effective. We must look at the program each individual student carries. Some students will have more work in English and the social sciences while others will be more involved in mathematics and science. All students will be involved in vocabulary which will be tied to the individual's areas of concentration. If a pupil has a vocabulary difficulty, the type of difficulty must be further determined. When this is done, materials dealing with vocabulary development must be carefully selected so that they will concentrate in the area where there is the greatest need. We have many words which are used in all or almost all areas of the curriculum, but many of these words have certain connotations as well as denotations according to use. It must become the responsibility of the content area specialist to determine vocabulary deficiences in his area and then prescribe or construct materials that will be of the greatest help. It would be much wiser and far more effective to obtain a number of samples of vocabulary building materials and have them carefully examined by the content area teachers, who should then be able to determine which materials would best do a specific job. It could be that a number of vocabulary builders would do the job, on the other hand they may contain a dearth of material that may not be needed. We must strive to obtain the best materials; on the other hand, we should not waste valuable time of both teachers and pupils on superfluous materials.

In selecting materials to develop organizational skills we frequently find those which lean toward sequential development but not always from the point of organization. A good narrative story may be sequentially developed, but it may be very difficult to use in teaching outlining or in picking out main points and details. Materials used to develop these skills must be well organized and contain facts which are closely related. The reader should not have to search through the paragraph or several paragraphs to find a topic sentence. We frequently criticize a pupil's writing because he goes off on tangents. Let us not make the same mistake in the selection of his instructional materials. Short selections, complete within themselves, taken from science and social studies books may prove to be just the material for which you have been looking.

A big problem offered our young readers today, by radio, television, and the various methods of mass media is that of fact and opinion. This problem becomes more acute especially when many of our adult citizens depend upon the radio and television for keeping up on the news of the world. In checking a number of work-study materials, I find this to be one area which is often slighted and in many cases entirely forgotten. We must teach our students to read critically so they will be able to differentiate between fact and opinion. Critical reading is basic for writing research papers which will be required as the student moves along his educational career. A pupil may comprehend what he has read, but this is never a guarantee that he can differentiate between fact and opinion.

In the teaching of literature, we have always stressed appreciation skills. We want students to really enjoy their reading. We have tried to point out that from the printed page we are able to enjoy all kinds of experiences. From the comfort of a cozy chair we can travel to the most remote corner of the earth. If we believe this, then we should be able to provide our pupils with materials which will teach them this very valuable and certainly pleasurable skill. Instructional materials will have to be carefully checked or else this area may be entirely neglected.

Most secondary reading instructional materials will contain exercises to develop speed. It would almost seem as if the chief aim of reading has given way to speed. As a caution, no pupil should be placed on speed reading who has not proved that he is having no difficulty with word analysis or vocabulary. If these difficulties prevail, then speed reading will only enable the pupil to make more errors in a shorter space of time. Speed must go hand-in-hand with comprehension. Speed is no value if comprehension suffers. Exercises to develop speed must be carefully examined to determine that they are not of a single type in content. By this I mean, they must be greatly differentiated so that a pupil will be able to increase his speed but at the same time be able to vary his rate according to the material being read. Too often pupils are trained to increase their rate on simple narrative type material, and then when they try to read highly factual material at the same rate they are completely lost. Let us use speed materials, but not just for the sake of speed.

Recently I examined a number of secondary reading materials. In addition to this I spent a considerable amount of time in the secondary classrooms. What happens when we check comprehension? We want the best answer possible, but do we get it? Do we ask the best question possible? We select good materials, we develop critical reading, organization skills, and vocabulary, and then kill everything by asking a factual question which may be answered by "yes" or "no." Examine the questions used in checking comprehension. If they do not do the job, then change their format. Let us use more inferential, sequential, and vocabulary type questions. These type of questions will do a real job of clinching those skills we have been trying to develop.

I have purposely left the area of word attack to the last. Not that it is unimportant, but when placed at the beginning of such a discourse, word attack can easily be forgotten. If we should be asked which word-attack skills we use when we meet unfamiliar words, the answer would probably be, "I don't know." This does not mean we are weak in word attack skills, it only means we have these skills so well in hand they become automatic. Pupils must master this ability as quickly as possible. Give exercises which will enable pupils to apply these skills so they become automatic.

We are well supplied with good materials, but we must not expect a cure-all from any of them. If they were that good, then you and I would soon be looking for other types of employment.

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1. The Rationale for Reading Textbooks

David Kopel

BASAL READING materials for use in the upper elementary grades and high school were first produced in considerable numbers in the middle thirties. These materials took two principal forms: a) workbooks, usually in paperback covers, with exercises for increasing reading rate, vocabulary, and various comprehension skills; and b) readers, more comprehensive and varied in content, containing skill-practice material as in the workbooks together with selections explaining many aspects of the reading process. Both types may, for convenience, be called reading textbooks; some were produced in single volumes whereas others were published in series of two to four books for as many grades.

As remedial and developmental programs increased in number during the forties and fifties they generated a demand for more materials. Not only new titles but also a few new types appeared. Thus some basal reader series were extended to include separate volumes for grades VII and VIII; these of course should be designated as reading textbooks. Also, other readers for the junior high school unrelated to any basal series, and resembling literary anthologies, but giving attention to reading skills, were introduced. Finally several publishers marketed boxes of practice reading selections and exercises, each mounted on heavy paper or cardboard, with the collections suitable for a wide range of interests and abilities. The recent materials are somewhat more sophisticated but essentially similar to those of the prewar period.

An evaluation of reading textbooks revealed that they mirror quite closely the commonly expressed objectives of developmental reading programs—to promote pupil improvement or growth in: (1) comprehension, (2) critical reading ability, (3) work-study and library skills, (4) vocabulary, (5) speed, (6) flexibility and appropriateness in use of reading skills, (7) reading interests and tastes, (8) oral and written expression, and (9) self-understanding and maturity of behavior.

The foregoing objectives represent values and constitute an underlying rationale of reading textbooks and other basal materials as well as of the developmental programs for which they were constructed. The nine items are not, of course, distinct and separate entities; they merely express different, and to some extent, interrelated or even overlapping facets of a dynamic matrix of good reading habits, skills, attitudes, and interests that comprise genuine competence in reading.

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2. Reading in Literature—A Lively Art

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These remarks are divided into three parts. The first heading is "literature, the world's cultural catalyst;" the second, "teacher attitudes in the teaching of literature," and third, "mass media, a means to an end."

Literature, The World's Cultural Catalyst

One of the great humanizers is man's ability to tell about himself and to record these insights for others to read. Indeed, man's journey from the cave to the stars has its energy and direction from our innumerable ancestors that have laid out the trail thus far for us through books. If we accept the idea that the art of being human is locked up in literature, and that we are less human as we are untempered by a knowledge of man's triumphs and losses or unacquainted with his dreams, then we understand that literature is indeed a lively energizer, a potent force that has more power than any other in making a civilization what it is.

If literature serves this role, then the high school teacher of literature holds an exceptionally important position in the emotional and intellectual life of his student. If this teacher can help bring direction and meaning to the ambiguity of his student's split worlds, if he can help to bring to his student a knowledge and understanding of himself and others, and if he can help his student to fit all these parts together into a unitary concept of life, he will have made a notable contribution indeed.

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Teacher Attitudes in the Teaching of Literature

But all philosophy, to be useful, must lead to a change of attitudes, and these attitudes to action. What attitudes can this teacher of literature cultivate that will help him lead his students to gain order out of chaos, direction out of aimlessness?

First of all, he must believe in literature for himself, and believe in it enough to read it widely and intensively, lightly and deeply. He must know it and use it. He must see its relatedness and usefulness to his world and be able to indicate this to others, subtilely, and without offense. When I was in college, my English literature teacher was to me the epitomy of this ideal. A native of England and a graduate of Oxford, he made the works of the English essayists and poets a part of the reminiscences of his own experiences with simplicity and charm that brought Blake's London back to life once again, and made Boswell's England a familiar haunt once more. I don't remember being required to memorize many lines, or to explain the writer's methods or techniques, but I do remember England and her writers as they somehow were a real part of this teacher. Literature was life to us; it was the here and the now. He made literature a part of our own experience by allowing us to join with him in a vicarious emotion which was a part of himself.

A second construct that may be suggested is that the high school teacher of literature indicates through his assignments and guidance that he believes that every student is in some degree different from each of the others in abilities, interests, drives, motives, experience, skills, and aspirations. To meet these individual levels of needs, books should be available that include both a wide range of reading levels and skills, and a broad range of interests, including those dealing with the prime motivators of love and affection, belonging, approval, independence, adequacy, prestige, the love of adventure, curiosity, and the thrill of discovery.

As an important source of a wide range of inexpensive books, the paperback has gained wide acceptance. While various studies have indicated that they are not practical economically when used as textbooks,[1] paperbacks are an invaluable aid in augmenting titles and allowing students to purchase their own literary works. For example, ten quality paperbacks in literature can be purchased for $5.50.[2] Cohen[3] lists among the merits of paperbacks that they are cheaper than hard covers, are compact and convenient; are up to date, cover an infinite range of content and levels of difficulty, and are made easily available for book reports and free reading. Cohen continues in the April 1964 issue of the *Journal of Education* by giving an extensive bibliography for paperbacks and an interesting section titled "unusual ways to use paperbacks." Any teacher who wishes to use this media to extend his available literary offerings should consult this article.

A study by Bertha Handlan[4] indicates, however, that simply making a wide range of books available and encouraging students to read them without guidance results in a rather purposeless activity without regard to the needs that reading could have helped them meet. A further study by Leavell and Wilson[5] of tenth grade students in Dallas indicated that a guided free reading program, including an interest inventory and individual and group conferences on book selection improved significantly both the students' growth in skills and their initiative and interest in books.

Another frame of reference for the teacher of literature, if he believes in the cultural and humanizing power of his craft, is that he will be somewhat wary in the use of gimmicks and gadgets to produce short cuts to instant culture. It seems difficult to imagine that an over-emphasis on rate, for example, could help to bring direction and meaning to our student's split worlds or help him to better understand himself and others.

A last general teacher-attitude I shall

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[1] "How to Fortify Your Curriculum with Paperback Books," *School Management*, 7 (August, 1963), pp. 28ff.

[2] *Paperbacks in the Schools*, Alexander Butman, Donald Reis, and David Sohn, editors, New York: Bantam Books, 1963.

[3] S. Alan Cohen, "Using Paperbacks in the Secondary School," *Journal of Education*, 146 (April, 1964), pp. 19-26.

[4] Bertha Handlan, "The Fallacy of Free Reading as an Approach to Appreciation," *The English Journal*, 35 (April, 1946), pp. 182-188.

[5] U. W. Leavell and G. E. Wilson, "Guided Free Reading Versus Other Methods in High School English," *Peabody Journal of Education*, (March, 1956), pp. 272-280.

mention is one that concerns itself with the evaluation of learning in literature. Studies in educational psychology indicate that students learn in the manner of their evaluation, not in the manner of their instruction. That is, a teacher may concern himself with teaching literature and guiding the student's reading in literature in a way calculated to produce a variety of changes in the student including awareness of his own motives and needs, responsibility to others, loyalty, patriotism, fair play, interpersonal relations, the fun of reading for its own sake, and the like. But, contrary to all our labors, students do not learn these habits of attitude through reading if evaluation of reading is dominated by factual questions only. Neither will deeper insights in the literature itself be produced if evaluation does not require the student to examine the insights he has gained through reading. It is the student's own insight, after all, that is the important thing. Although detail and structure are important, the private, internalized meaning is the thing we want to have happen.

Mass Media: A Means to an End

The final proof of a philosophy with its attendant attitudes is in the outcomes of behavior which they create. Theory must end in behavior, and theories about reading, like theories of learning, if they are of any value, must help to bring about a maximum of change, either overt or covert, in the person who reads or is taught to read, by the methods based on the theory. I am going to assume that each of us is either familiar with the skills of reading in literature, or knows where they can be found, along with a plethora of accompanying practice materials. Perhaps the problem most likely to hamper us in our teaching of these skills is that we don't know how to introduce them in a lively enough medium to make them interesting.

One of the favorite activities of the adolescent is television, according to Paul Witty[8] and others. Also, still popular, are radio and the movies. Why not use these types of media not only as vehicles for developing reading skills in literature, but also for developing some of the same cultural changes that we have trusted the reading of literature to produce?

What are some of the skills that can be developed through televiewing that are comparable to reading in literature? Surely, there is the same problem of learning to select the program of quality and value as there is in learning to choose books that reflect literary appreciation. In literature we use the technique of comparing and critically evaluating a work of literature according to prescribed ground rules; the same can be done for television viewing. We work with our students in literature in examining plot, structure, setting, staging, dialogue, special effects, character development, and thematic content. The same can be done for selected TV productions. As in preparation for any literary experience, the teacher must be carefully prepared to guide students' viewing as well as direct follow-up activities.

Follow-up activities may be group discussion, critical reviews, supplementary reading, historical or documentary reading for verification, re-inactments, oral readings of a similar setting or theme, changing prose productions into poetry, or visiting a comparative "real-life" situation such as a court trial as a method of comparison and critical appraisal.

Other activities, depending on individual student need, may include summary or précis writing, outlining, rewriting or recutting to fit a different time limit in order to develop a concept of main ideas or a study of words and language. Debate type sessions in which one student defends a character as having "strength of purpose," for example, while another attempts to point out his weaknesses, may meet a variety of purposes, in that the creative talents of the participants are given expression, critical thinking and judgment are developed, and human nature is recognized as a many faceted thing.

Television, the movies, and other mass media, like the literature of books, are the products of our current needs of society, and, for good or ill, reflect the thinking, feeling, and doing of our age. While not all the noisy arts are worth the student's time, neither are all the stories in books. We are the models that help determine what our students watch and read. We may wonder why some of the less desirable shows continue to haunt our living room while many of those of literary and social value are the first casualties to the Neilson ratings. Maybe we too are more responsible for this than we would like to admit. Perhaps if we as teachers took an active interest in the good rather than simply complaining about the inferior, we could do more to control the products of our public media.

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[8] Paul Witty, "Some Interests of High School Boys and Girls," in *Improvement of Reading Through Classroom Practice*, Vol. 9, Proceedings of the Annual Convention of the International Reading Association (1964), pp. 186-187.

There are many worthwhile programs which can be used to strengthen an appreciation for lasting values and indirectly, if used intelligently by the teacher, strengthen the skills needed for reading in literature. By mentioning some we may, by exclusion, do disservice to many of the other excellent productions. But the stories carried by Hallmark Hall of Fame, the Profiles in Courage Series, some of the Walt Disney productions, Play of the Week, and the White Papers and live coverage of special news events are excellent avenues for developing a multitude of skills for reading as a thinking and reasoning process. Major networks make preview materials on some of these programs available, and program listings are available over a month in advance of their showing.

Conclusion

Reading in literature is more than the sum of the parts of its separate skills. Its refinement belongs to those who understand what it is and who are willing to learn its variety of tones and moods through a multiplicity of avenues. A teacher who understands the liveliness of the art can aid immeasurably in this process.

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5. Improving Secondary Reading Through the Content Subjects

WILLIAM K. DURR

In the recent past, many secondary teachers brushed off the responsibility for improving the reading abilities of their students with the comment, "I have too much subject matter to teach; I don't have time to teach reading." Despite our increased knowledge and, consequently, the increased responsibility for helping students master still more and more content, the wise teacher today concludes, "There is so much for my students to learn, I can't afford *not* to teach reading."

Evaluation

We initially direct our reading instruction to the needs of our students and subsequently determine the effectiveness of our techniques through systematic evaluation of their reading abilities. One relatively simple evaluation technique is a diagnostic open book examination. Have your students summarize a brief section of the book with the book open. Then have them turn to another section and relate the information given there to something else, for example, to their own lives. Last, designate several words in the text and have them give definitions for those words which are appropriate for the context in which the words are found.

This procedure will help you determine whether your students can adequately handle the basic text for your course. It will not, however, tell you the level of material which will be appropriate if the text is too difficult. To answer the latter question, construct a series of short paragraphs dealing with the content in your area. These should range from simple to difficult and should include a set of questions for each paragraph. If you will select these directly from content books of varying difficulty levels, you can quickly obtain an estimate of the specific reading materials that you should use with those students who cannot use the grade-level text.

Vocabulary

Your evaluation should provide information about your students which will not only guide your selection of appropriate reading materials but will direct you to the most profitable areas for reading instruction. In most cases, vocabulary will be one of these areas.

The vocabulary problems that a student will most likely encounter in his reading fall into two general categories. First are those words for which the student would have meaning if he heard them but which are unfamiliar to him in print. For example, if someone read the word *catastrophe* to him in context, he might have understanding for it, but, if he sees it for the first time in print he may not have an immediate association between the symbols and the sound he knows as *catastrophe*.

The second category includes the more common vocabulary problems—meaning difficulties. In some cases, these involve words for which the student has built a symbol-meaning association but now he meets the word in a new context with a special, unknown meaning. For example, he may know that *motion* has to do with something changing place and that *letters* are alphabetic characters. Then, suddenly, he is called upon to understand the sentence, "The *motion* is carried," or, "He was a man of *letters*." In such cases, he has to develop additional meanings for words that he already thought he knew.

In other cases, these meaning difficulties involve words which are new in both meaning and pronunciation. For example, the first time he comes to the words *archipelago* or *neutrons* in his reading, he may have no meaning even when someone provides the correct pronunciations.

Students should first receive direct instruction in understanding these types of vocabulary difficulties. For example, say to them, "In this text you may have two kinds of difficulties with the words that you meet." Then discuss the above points with them together with many specific examples selected from your text.

Once the student clearly understands the kinds of vocabulary problems that he may encounter, how can you help him resolve those problems? The final arbitration, of course, rests with the dictionary, but high school students need direct instruction with other aids which precede dictionary use. One of the most important of these is the use of context clues.

Start by asking them, "In what three ways do you use context clues to help you with vocabulary?" They should know, or you should help them to understand, these ways. First, they use context clues to determine the pronunciation of certain words such as *wind* and *separate*. Second, they use context clues to help determine what a word might be when that word is in their meaning vocabulary but not in their sight recognition vocabulary. In the sentence, "The drowning man was pulled to the beach and given artificial *respiration*," context clues can help them with the word *respiration* in this familiar expression. Third, they use context clues with words which are not immediately recognizable in print and for which they would have no meaning even if they knew the correct pronunciation. In the sentence, "The *butterwort* is found generally in the southeastern United States," the word *butterwort* may be completely unknown to them both in sight and sound. Here they look for clues in the remainder of their material which will help them understand the meaning of the term and the correct pronunciation may not be essential.

In addition to context clues, you may have to provide some work in letter-sound associations for your students. This, obviously, is of no value unless the word is in their listening vocabulary. Making the correct letter-sound association and achieving the correct pronunciation of *butterwort* does not help unless we have meaning associated with that pronunciation once we have made it.

The abilities to utilize a dictionary, use context clues, and make appropriate letter-sound associations will all help your students in their independent reading. In addition, assistance with specific words which are most important to your content will increase their mastery of the content. This four-step process should occupy a few minutes from each class period.

First, select from your text the important words which you believe may cause difficulty. Supplement your list with words that your students select as they skim sections of the material looking for words which are not immediately recognizable to them.

Second, develop and fix the association between the printed symbol for the word and its sound. Write the word on the board in context and determine the pronunciation with the students. To fix it, have the students say the word orally and, when necessary, write it several times.

Third, develop meaning for this term as concretely as possible. This may involve an experiment that they perform or it may involve the use of such visual aids as movies, filmstrips, and still pictures. Discussion may be of some value in developing this meaning, but it should be in the most concrete terms that you can creatively devise.

Fourth, to make this word their permanent possession, have frequent, brief reviews. For example, it takes no more than two minutes of your class time to have your students review five words each day. Place these words on the board, pronounce, define, and use them in sentences with your students.

Purpose

After vocabulary, the greatest blocks to effective content reading are difficulties associated with purpose—student purpose for effective reading.

When our instruction centers around the content of a single text, the student needs direct help in establishing purpose in relation to that text. For example, it is never appropriate to tell a student merely to read a certain chapter. We must help him set his purpose for reading. If we want him to draw general conclusions from the material, then we must indicate this purpose before he reads it, preferably by giving him or helping devise questions which require general conclusions. If we want him to read the material for certain kinds of specific details, once again we should point out this purpose and direct him toward those details.

Our two best approaches to purpose with students are through comprehension and rate. We can help them set comprehension in terms of purpose by devoting at least the first one or two class sessions to a general overview of the text. Help students understand its general organization, the unit arrangements, chapter subdivisions, and section and paragraph headings in terms of the purposes they will have as they study the text.

This is an appropriate time to reinforce or introduce students to the "Survey-Question-Read-Recite-Review" system of study which has demonstrated effectiveness for many years. A survey of college freshmen, most of whom are unfamiliar with this technique, indicates that many complete high school without ever being introduced to it. A short book designed for use by the high school student, Francis Robinson's *Effective Reading* which was published by Harper and Row in 1961, is an excellent way to become acquainted with this invaluable study technique which you may, in turn, use with your students.

When you want students to read for the purpose of retaining important general information, one effective technique involves outlining. Here, however, you may have to block off some habits which students have previously developed. The type of outlining which students frequently learn involving main headings, subheadings, sub-subheadings and so on into minute infinity is a most inefficient way to study a single text for general information. Help your students by insisting that one page of major headings and subheadings per chapter is enough. Then give them practice in doing this outlining with the book closed after they have finished reading a chapter.

When the students' purpose is to get a more detailed understanding of the content, other procedures are more efficient. One frequently used technique involves summarizing a brief paragraph or paragraph section by having students try to reword the most important details into a brief telegram. Another is to have students select the main thought of a paragraph and then list, in their own words, all of the facts or details which the author uses to support or elaborate on his main thought. Still a third technique is to have the students reword the paragraph into a formula where idea plus idea plus idea equals main thought.

The second approach to purpose with students is through study and practice in rate flexibility. Few students are mature enough in the elementary grades to develop adequately an understanding of rate flexibility. Some have had a little help in increasing their words per minute in silent reading, but this falls far short of the ability which we should expect the average high school student to attain.

Discuss rate flexibility with them in terms of their own, individual competencies. You may do this concretely through simple, teacher-made exercises which help you evaluate them and help them evaluate their own levels. Duplicate three paragraphs which have been written for students at the fifth, eighth, and eleventh grade levels. Have them read each of these paragraphs for the major ideas and have them time themselves on each as they read. A comparison of each person's time for each paragraph can graphically show his ability to vary rate according to the difficulty of the material.

Additional paragraphs should be used to help them understand rate flexibility according to purpose. Provide two paragraphs of comparable length and difficulty. Have the students read the first to answer general questions and the second to answer questions of detail. Comparing their words per minute on the two paragraphs and their per cent of comprehension on the two kinds of questions will concretely show them their rate flexibility according to purpose.

You can provide activities which will give them practice in varying rate in almost all of the reading assignments that you give. When you make a reading assignment and help set purpose with questions before they read, remind them that they are to read for general ideas and they should read at a rapid rate or that they are to read for details and they should read at a more careful rate.

Concretely show them their progress by individual charts which graphically portray words per minute and per cent of comprehension. Each student should keep his own chart and, at least once each week, have timed practice which permits comparison with his previous rate levels.

Conclusion

The concrete value of reading instruction correlated with the content areas has been amply demonstrated. Your students will not only increase in reading efficiency, they will learn more in your content area when you provide reading instruction in that area. Evaluating their reading abilities and providing direct teaching in vocabulary and reading with purpose will help them attain their highest learning levels.

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11. Reading Instruction in the High School Literature Class

Leo Fay

In certain quarters, voices speaking in angry and bitter tones complain that our young people read more poorly than ever before. On the other hand, reports of college entrance examinations, librarians and publishers suggest that today's youth, as a group, are more competent and more avid readers than their predecessors. Each point of view marshalls impressive statistics to support its contentions, and often each is guilty of overstating its cause. While the situation is not as bleak as Walcutt's[1] charge that in a typical American high school, one third of the ninth grade students read at the second and third grade level, it is also true that it is the proportion he claims that is in error, and not that many of our high school youth are, in fact, poor readers. This group of poor readers, regardless of number, represents a shameful indictment of a society that has both the means and the knowledge to largely overcome this blight but that lacks the determination and belief in education to really take the necessary corrective measures. The problem is deeper than the schools. It permeates much of our society, and will not be overcome until we, as a people, learn to value scholarships and literacy more highly than we do chewing gum.

We can't solve this problem here and now, but we can be realists and realize that no insignificant part of the problem in teaching literature relates directly to the vast range of talent faced by the classroom teacher. A range that extends from those who function no better than primary readers to others, at the same ages in the same high school classes, who can hold their own with college students. With this look at reality as background let us look at certain basic questions that are of significance to the teacher of high school literature.

Fundamental, of course, is the question of what is to be accomplished in the literature program. What are its goals? This in turn leads to a necessary consideration of what the student should read to meet these goals. While literature needs to be read does it follow that reading should be taught through literature? These questions are all related to the major concern of this paper, to discuss the reading skills that relate directly to the successful reading of literature.

Goals of the Literature Program

Using publications of the N.C.T.E. as a resource, the goals of the high school literature program are concerned with gaining an insight into the range of man's experiences and ideals, developing an appreciation of literary works as a basis for exercising taste in what is read, developing a habit of turning to reading for personal development, developing the skills for intelligent interpretation, and, through literature, enriching the personal lives of youth.

With this summary statement as a guidepost, the question of what a student should read becomes significant.

The range of ability and hence need, coupled with the wide scope of our objectives makes the restricted list of time-honored classics an impossible choice. There is no possible list of selections equally appropriate for all. This implies quite naturally that the teacher must know, and the school make available, large numbers of books representing a wide range of both content and reading difficulty. Nor is this all. Of greater importance and more demanding of the teacher is the need to know the interests and abilities of students. It is immensely easier to know the content of books than it is to be truly sensitive to the needs and abilities of all one's students—the eager, the indifferent, the able, the slow, the enthusiastic, the stolid. But yet, if literature is to make a difference in their lives, it must be personalized. Somehow we must help each student find particular selections that at a given time offer him something of importance and enjoyment.

Does the meeting of individual needs in the selection of what is read lower standards to the level of the most mediocre? Quite to the contrary, such a practice carried to its logical conclusion results in the highest possible standard—the best from each student becomes the minimum acceptable standard. It is the unthinking restriction to a few selections that are "good for everyone" that lowers performance and that results in such compromises as the classics in simplified and comic book form.

The Skills for Reading Literature

The English teacher might very well

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[1] Charles C. Walcutt. *Tomorrow's Illiterates.* Boston: Little, Bown and Company, 1961, p. 7.

accept all of this but be left with a lingering doubt as to his responsibilities in regard to reading and literature. In no sense is the idea implied that a developmental reading program should be carried out as part of the teaching of literature. Each has its own goals and values. Each merits attention by itself. However, there are specific reading skills that relate directly to the successful reading of literature. The teacher does have a direct responsibility for guiding the development of these skills as he teaches literature.

The teacher is rightly concerned that his students learn to read effectively and react to the different forms of literature—the novel, short story, drama, poetry. In addition, students need guidance in reacting to content. As in all reading, they need first to comprehend what they read through mastery of word, sentence and paragraph meaning. In this context, work with the word includes the enrichment of meaning but not the mechanical phonetic attack skills. Word study that leads to rich sensory imagery gives life to literature. Sentences of different kinds are studied, students read for significant detail, summarize main ideas, study the plot, the characters, and the development of the author's thoughts. Help is given to organize ideas into notes, outlines, and reports. All of these activities help the student become an effective literal reader—the first stage of literacy in the reading of literature.

There is another way of reacting to the content of what is read that makes literature more personal for the reader. The reader must learn to play an active role when reading. Not only taking what the author has to give but inserting himself and his personal values and beliefs into the situation. Some call this creative reading, others interpretative reading, and still others critical reading. Regardless of name, the essential point is that the reader learns to react to what he reads, to shades of meaning, to inferences, to evidences of emotions, that he draw conclusions, see relationships and make judgments in terms of life as he knows it, what he believes and what he holds dear. This active reaction results in the higher level of literacy that is essential for fulfilling the goal of personal development through reading.

Reading as a means of personal development carries a second implication for the literature teacher. We speak of developing interests and tastes for this purpose. These are lofty words but they don't quite catch the spark of what needs to be done. As part of the active and personal involvement of the student in what he reads, the teacher needs to guide him to actively seek out good literature, to extend his horizons, and to develop a habit of turning to the printed word as a means of stimulating personal development. This is a way of life that we can foster by providing our students with a wide acquaintance with literature and by reflecting the values of this type of personal development within ourselves.

The picture of reading in literature is completed with the fourth dimension of efficiency in reading. To many, efficiency has become synonymous with speed. They visualize booths and machines and charts showing spectacular gain lines. Heaven forbid that the reading of literature should ever become this! However, speed has its place in the reading of literature. At times it is appropriate to skim, at other times one must read with careful deliberation and perhaps even reread. It is important to know not only *how* to read in different ways but also when. The content of literature provides splendid opportunities for students to develop these insights to guide their future reading.

Reading in literature is thus concerned with the major elements of developing the skills of literal comprehension and of critical reading, personal development through reading, and increased efficiency.

The Action Step

How all this can be done is best learned from the practices of classroom teachers. Excellent examples are found in the work of Mrs. Fern Barnett and Mr. Edward Jenkinson[2], of South Bend, Indiana. These teachers, working at ninth and twelfth grade levels respectively, were able to show that attention to reading skills as suggested here make dramatic differences in their literature programs. Not the least significant of their findings was that critical reaction and demands for greater efficiency resulted in frustration for several "A" students who discovered that to memorize and to think critically were not synonymous. The ninth grade program, organized about a unit concerned with recognizing and understanding propaganda, took the students to over a hundred references ranging from classics to popular short stories and public affairs pamphlets. Motivation ran high. Some students who had been labeled as mediocre performed exceptionally well. The teacher's remark was significant when she said, "Apparently their reasoning power had never been called out in English work to any perceptible degree."

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[2] Leo Fay. *Improving the Teaching of Reading by Teacher Experimentation.* Bulletin of the School of Education, Indiana University, Bloomington, September 1958, pp. 51-56.

The twelfth grade class emphasized both vocabulary development and effective techniques of reading literature. These were superior students in an elective literature class whose growth in reading skill in a few months time indicated clearly that the direct teaching of reading skills is beneficial even for students who ordinarily are considered to be good or excellent readers. In short, it pays to be concerned with skill as well as content.

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9. Who Teaches Reading in the Secondary School?

HARRY T. HAHN

This much is known. Very few young people enter high school as mature readers for they are still in the process of developing skills, attitudes, and knowledge necessary to read and learn with instruction or on their own. If these students are to receive a sizable dividend for the time and effort they invest in reading, particularly in new and strange content areas, they need consistent guidance in organizing and extending the knowledge and skills they already possess.

Who provides this reading instruction? The suggestion that every teacher has this responsibility is apt to ignite a pervasive, contentious spirit in high school faculty meetings. The answer seems to imply that new and foreign content must be added to an already crowded program. How, indeed, does a teacher resolve the learning problems of 150 or more students she sees every day?

The direct teaching of reading and study skills in special English classes or reading laboratories has provided one approach and, fortunately, has gained in popular support. In fact, Pennsylvania passed a law requiring time be devoted to reading instruction in the seventh and eighth grade. The increasing variety of useful publications[1], the growing understanding of the specific skills needed[2], and the training of competent reading instructors has been a boon to the slow starters as well as alert readers who want and need assistance in demonstrating more nearly their learning potentials. Indeed, reading teachers in high school have been the unsung heroes of the student conservation or holding power campaign battling with compassion for the individual's right to learn at a rate consistent with his abilities, skills and understanding.

Direct teaching of reading and study skills, no matter how effective, is not enough. In too many cases special instruction cannot bridge the gap between pupil skills and teacher expectations. It is obvious that content area teachers must be involved with the full recognition of their obligation to develop their course content. This is where we find the important challenge in high school. This is the area which demands study and experimentation.

Learning to read is essentially synonymous with the term learning to learn except that reading focuses attention on the interpretation of orthographic symbols. Thus, the strategy of reading instruction is not unlike the strategy employed by the master teacher who has discovered many ways to expand, enrich and organize pupils' experiences in order to develop new concepts or recall and reinforce previously learned ones. This strategy, simply stated by Russell[3], tested by Ramsay[4], suggests that the teacher's role is to guide young people to think before, during, after and beyond a reading assignment.

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[1] Curriculum Research Report, *Reading in the Secondary Schools*. Bureau of Curriculum Research, Board of Education of the City of New York, 1961.

[2] M. Jerry Weiss. *Reading in the Secondary Schools*. New York: The Odyssey Press, Inc., 1961; *Reading Skills and Methods of Teaching Them*, Kansas Studies in Education; "Teaching Essential Reading Skills," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary Principals*.

Excellent teachers provide examples of this strategy. Beginning secondary teachers who observed a directed history lesson were intrigued with the teacher's role in preparing the class to get into a book, get what they wanted and then get out. They were particularly impressed with the way students and books were brought together by skillful questioning, background development, vocabulary enrichment and the use of various audio-visual aids to set the stage for learning. One aspiring science teacher, observing an introduction to a directed science lesson, felt that it had all of the excitement and curiosity of a three ringed circus. A tenth-grade social studies teacher showed how he worked with a group of slow learners. He recognized that the difficult text could be of value, although limited, if he carefully structured questions which would guide the reader from paragraph to paragraph. When the reading assignments were made, he had the students work in pairs to find the answers to his questions. The young people and teacher were pleased with the dividend received. When it was suggested to this teacher that he had been providing excellent reading instruction, he was puzzled. Is this what the term "teaching of reading" implied?

Teacher awareness of the possibilities of developing and refining specific reading and study skills is merely the first step in penetrating the "paper curtain." If any plan is to be generally effective it must be part of the curriculum and not incidental to it. This implies that the course of study in English, science, mathematics, social studies, and other areas must be designed to provide for the wide range of reading abilities which, test results show, will be found in every classroom. Concern for ways to make words brim with meaning must be incorporated together with the materials and devices necessary to get the job done. It is not enough to give a new teacher text books and heterogeneous or homogeneous groups of students and simply told to "get in there and teach!"

A brief case report of the development of the English curriculum in Pontiac, Michigan, will be cited as one example of a successful attempt to include a continuous program of reading instruction in a course of study. Representative English teachers from the junior and senior high schools were employed during the summer months, five years ago, to develop a practical program for systematic, differentiated language arts instruction. At that time the decision was made to continue with heterogeneous grouping and to expand the unit theme ideas in their literature anthologies. A detailed outline of a unit theme on sports was prepared with particular provisions for differentiated instruction at all reading levels. The plan was examined, discussed, and revised in a series of conferences with all English teachers the following semester. When there appeared to be general acceptance of the unit theme concept, the school administration appointed two creative teachers, on a half-time basis for a full semester, to develop thematic units for seventh and eighth graders. Subsequently, a program for the remaining four years was also written.

The Pontiac Literature-Centered Unit Plan[5], as it is called, outlined the language arts skills which would be considered throughout the school year and provided detailed suggestions of times, places and materials with which to promote skills in reading, spelling, grammar, and composition.

The unit plan was expressly designed to make provisions for: needs of individual learners; materials at all levels to develop basic concepts; enriching audio-visual experiences; and a wide range of reading choices within a student's interest areas. Teachers were guided to initiate the unit with a common literary experience from one of the anthologies. In-service programs stressed the importance of carefully directed reading instruction in this introduction. The common literary experiences chosen were of average difficulty, effectively presented the theme and were fairly well-written stories or articles. Following the common reading, it was recognized that all of the students did not have to read the same stories to develop basic unit theme concepts. To facilitate differentiated guidance, suggested readings and related activities were identified in three performance categories: low, average, and high. Students soon discovered the material which they could read successfully and tended to read widely on designated themes. Particular attention was given to a choice of materials for the severely retarded readers even though these young people received additional help in special reading classes.

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[3] David H. Russell. *Children Learn to Read.* Boston: Ginn and Co., 1961.

[4] Wallace Z. Ramsay. "An Experiment in Teaching Reading in High School English Classes," *English Journal*, 46 November, 1957); pp. 495-500.

[5] *Language Arts, A Course of Study for grades 7, 8, 9 — to 11 and 12.* Pontiac Board of Education, Pontiac, Michigan.

The English department had developed a plan teachers could use. However, the printed words were cold. To make them come to life a junior high school language arts helping teacher was employed to organize workshops, demonstrate specific practices, revise units when necessary, supply materials, and, most important, meet with individual teachers to discuss specific problems. At the high school level, the heads of the English departments were given released time to interpret this program.

Since the development of the Pontiac course of study, the Scholastic Literature Units have been published following a somewhat similar plan with paperback materials. This plan also provides considerable flexibility in providing reading instruction.

In both plans, teachers are provided detailed instruction and materials to enhance students' reading skills. Thus, "teaching of reading" is not a nebulous idea. Similar provisions could be made in other content areas particularly if the matter was considered in the planning stage. For instance, the development of a concept-based or key idea centered curriculum in social studies[6] which will start in Oakland County in September, 1962, offers promising opportunities for reading instruction to be effectively incorporated in the lesson ideas which will be prepared. If the "what" and the "why" concerns of any subject are to make sense for a large majority of the students, it is evident that the "how" questions must receive closer attention.

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[6] Myles Platt. *A Proposal for the Development of a Concept Based Curriculum in Social Studies for Grades Kindergarten Through Twelve.* Oakland County Board of Education, Pontiac, Michigan, 1962.

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b. An Experiment in Teaching Reading Through Social Studies Content

HAROLD L. HERBER

This paper is a mid-year evaluation report on an experiment now in progress, involving 2,000 seventh grade students in five junior high schools in the Sewanhaka Central High School District No. 2, Floral Park, New York. The purpose of this experiment is to determine the validity of teaching reading through the content of the seventh grade Social Studies course, The History of New York State. More specifically, the experiment seeks answers to the following questions: (1) Does this approach to the teaching of Social Studies increase efficiency in reading? (2) Does this approach to the teaching of Social Studies influence the thoroughness of students' understanding of the subject? (3) Does this approach to the teaching of Social Studies meet equally well the reading needs of students at all levels of reading achievement?

Basis of the Experiment

This approach to reading instruction is based on several suppositions: (1) The best place to learn how to read Social Studies material well is in the Social Studies class; (2) The person best qualified to develop Social Studies vocabulary skills and concepts is the Social Studies teacher; (3) Students can read with understanding any material they have to read, if they are adequately prepared. This preparation includes use of motivation, adequate study of the vocabulary appearing in the material to be read, review of previously covered concepts pertinent to those to be developed, anticipation of what may and should be encountered and learned in the new material, and proper direction as to how the materials should be read. Following the preparation for reading, the students read the materials and, while reading, practice the basic and higher level reading skills necessary in extracting the full meaning of the content.

Structure of the Experiment

Instruction is provided by the regular classroom teachers using particular instructional techniques applied to materials prepared especially for this experiment. Time is not set aside for instruction in reading *per se:* rather, as the students are being prepared for the reading of content related materials and while they are actually reading the materials, they practice specific reading skills. When new reading skills are introduced, the materials used are related to the content of the course. These skills are reinforced by practicing them on materials related to the content of the course. Therefore, while students are being exposed to new concepts or are reinforcing previously learned concepts, they are learning or practicing reading skills.

Because secondary school teachers generally have not had training in the development of reading skills through the content of a course, they need special assistance. Teacher assistance in this experiment is given in several forms:

A. In-service training: Teachers involved in the experiment receive a salary differential of two hundred dollars. As a part of the experiment, they are required to take an in-service course from the district reading coordinator. In this course they are instructed in: 1) use of test data to interpret reading needs; 2) various techniques that may be used to insure adequate preparation of students for reading; 3) identifying the various reading skills that should be taught in Social Studies; 4) various ways in which a given skill may be taught; 5) use of the materials prepared for the experiment; and 6) various techniques that may be used in grouping for instruction within a class to meet individual needs.

B. Preparation of materials: Special materials were needed for such an experiment. The reading teachers of the district, with help from some Social Studies teachers, prepared two volumes of material designed to help the teachers in developing skills through the content of the course. These materials were based on the one textbook available and followed the curriculum guide prepared for the course. Vocabulary exercises were constructed for each chapter, designed to improve word recognition and word meaning, using the vocabulary of the chapter. Exercises were designed to provide practice on basic comprehension skills, higher level reading skills and study skills as the students read the text. To meet individual differences within the class, the exercises were prepared on three levels of difficulty. This allows the teacher to group for instruction and use materials that best suit the achievement levels with the class.

C. Distribution of materials: To make it as convenient as possible for the teachers, all materials designed for use in the experiment are available in quantity for classroom use. Each teacher has the two volumes for reference. He has only to anticipate his need of material and send an order to the Instructional Materials Center for the specific exercises he has selected. These are exercises he believes to be pertinent to the reading needs of the class and to the emphasis he is giving to that particular phase of the content. These materials are delivered to him at his school and he only has to put them into use.

There are over eight hundred pages of exercise material, obviously more than any one teacher might wish to use. This allows the teacher to be selective with respect to the reading needs of his students as well as to the degree of emphasis he wishes to place on a given chapter.

D. Consultant Aid: In each building the reading teachers are available to give needed assistance to the classroom teachers through demonstration, observation, consultation, preparation of additional materials. The district reading coordinator and curriculum supervisors also are available for this type of assistance.

Evaluation

After five months had elapsed in the experiment, a random sampling of students (every sixth student) was given the Iowa Silent Reading Test to determine gains made in reading performance. The test results on this sampling indicate that the students are experiencing good gains in reading performance as a result of their exposure to this type of instruction.

The average grade equivalent gain among the five buildings ranges from one year and one month to two years and three months over the five months instructional period. The average gain for the entire district is one year and nine months. Accounting for the five months of instruction, the students have made an average gain of one year and four months over the normally expected gain.

This compares favorably with the average grade equivalent gain for the district made by the previous year's seventh grade, which did not participate in this experiment. The average gain of that class, over the full year, was one year and seven months; or seven months over the normally expected gain.

Quartiles were determined for students' pre-test scores on the Iowa Silent Reading Test. When the post-test was given, gains in standard score were computed for each student in each quartile for each building as well as for the district. An analysis of variance was run between quartiles for each building and for the district to determine if there were any significant differences in the mean gain of the students in the quartiles. This made it possible to determine which students received the greatest benefit from this experiment—low, average or high achievers.

For four buildings and for the district, no significant differences were found between quartiles. This gives evidence that students at all achievement levels are receiving equal benefit from this program with respect to the development of reading performance. In one school there was a significant difference between students in the first and second quartile and those in the third and fourth, students in the former making the greater gain. Thus, in one school, students of lower achievement received more benefit from the program than those of higher achievement.

Grade equivalent and accuracy gains were determined on each sub-test for each building and for the district. This was done in an effort to determine the types of skills receiving the greatest development in the program. For the district, the greatest grade equivalent gain was in the "Rate" sub-test (2.1); the greatest accuracy gain was in the "Comprehension" sub-test (14%). The next highest grade equivalent gain was in the "Directed Reading" and "Paragraph Comprehension" sub-test (both 1.9); the next highest accuracy gain was in the "Sentence Meaning" sub-test (5%). The least grade equivalent gain was in the "Word Meaning" sub-test (.9); the least accuracy gain was in the "Paragraph Comprehension" sub-test (—1%).

Conclusions

No decisive conclusions can be drawn at this point because this is a mid-year sampling. However, indications are that: 1) The experimental approach to the teaching of Social Studies is promoting excellent gains in reading achievement. 2) This approach serves students equally well at all achievement levels.

Other than positive comments from teachers and students who feel this approach develops a greater understanding of the content, there is no objective evidence that this is true. This conclusion must wait until other tests are administered and evaluated in the Spring.

If the present gains are maintained and extended by the end of this year, it would indicate that this approach to teaching reading through content is highly successful and should be pursued further in other courses and at other grade levels.

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2. Developing Reading Skills Demanded by Content Subjects

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IN SEPTEMBER, 1963, a Project English Demonstration Center was established in the Jamesville-DeWitt Junior-Senior High School in DeWitt, New York. Funded by the U. S. Office of Education and sponsored by Syracuse University, this Center was established for two purposes: one, to produce a series of motion pictures, directed to teachers, which would present the organization and operation of a secondary school reading program. Particular emphasis was to be given to the problems of teaching reading in content areas. Each film was to be accompanied by a manual which would provide for reaction to the concepts presented in the film, would suggest activities through which the principles presented could be applied in the viewers' own classes, and would present sample materials used in classrooms in the Demonstration Center. The films and manuals would eventually serve as the basis for in-service education programs in schools not having recourse to university personnel to conduct such courses in their districts.

The second purpose of the Center was to establish a secondary school reading program which would give particular emphasis to the teaching of reading in content areas. Personnel from other secondary schools or from universities would come to the Center to see a program of this type actually operating in a public school situation.

The ten films have been produced, as have the ten manuals. The series is now being field-tested in six junior-senior high schools in New York State. Based on this field-testing, the manuals will be revised and printed in their final form.

It is too early to report on the effectiveness of the film series as the basis for in-service education, since the field-testing has not been completed. However, it is possible to make some observations concerning the work with the faculty in the Center as well as in other schools, work which is related to "Developing Reading Skills Demanded by Content Materials."

In working with secondary school faculties we have found it necessary to clarify errors in their thinking about reading instruction, remind them of principles of instruction which they may have accepted in theory but not in practice, and explore methods and materials by which they can teach students in their own classes how to read what they are required to read.

Clarifications

The major clarification concerning reading instruction in secondary schools is related to the cliché, "Every teacher a teacher of reading." Those of us who are acquainted with the field of reading say this to one another as a form of hopeful encouragement and we think we know what we mean. However, when we say

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[11] *End-of-Year Examinations in English for College-Bound Students, Grades 9-12.* A Project-Report by the Commission on English. Princeton: College Entrance Examination Board, 1963.

[12] *Advanced Placement Program: Course Description.* Princeton: College Entrance Examination Board. 1964, 66.

this to secondary teachers of various content areas, we threaten them because they do not know what we mean. Their concept of reading instruction is shaped by observing reading teachers work with students who have demonstrated deficiency in the use of specific skills. They conclude that we want them to set aside time from the study of their curriculum and use it to give instruction in reading. They recoil at the idea of devoting part of their limited time to such purposes. They do not perceive the critical difference in reading instruction which distinguishes their responsibility from that of the reading teacher. The reading teacher concentrates on skills development and is not concerned about the content being used as long as it serves to develop and provide practice on the skills being emphasized. The content teacher, on the other hand, is concerned primarily with the content of the material being read. He gives attention only to those skills which are essential to the understanding of the selections he assigns. His reading instruction is functional. He does not provide for reading instruction outside the context of his curriculum and its required materials.

When clarification is given to the responsibility of the content teacher to provide reading instruction, and when he is shown how to provide this instruction, a great hurdle of reluctance is cleared. His job is not to focus on reading skills as the reading teacher does. Nor is his job to provide for isolated practice on specific subject related skills, practice which is unrelated to the unit of study under consideration, practice which is contrived and out of context. Rather, his task is to help his students read successfully the specific assignments that he gives in the text. He concentrates only on those skills that students need in order to read required assignments and only as they need that instruction. Skills are not taught in isolation. This makes possible the simultaneous teaching of content and subject related reading skills. One is not sacrificed to the other.

We do not seek to make every teacher a teacher of reading. Rather, we help each one become a proficient teacher of his own area. We show him how he can teach reading *of* his content materials, rather than suggesting that he is to teach reading *in* his subject area. Though some may think we are splitting hairs and perhaps playing with words, the clarification brings the desired result.

Reminders

There is the story—probably apocryphal—about the reading teacher who decided not to go to the Dallas convention. When asked why, she replied: "Well, I'm not teaching reading now as well as I know how. Why should I go there and learn more that I won't use?" Apocryphal or not, the story reflects the fact that all of us in education frequently need to remind ourselves of what we already know about teaching and make good use of it.

We have found this to be true when working with teachers at the secondary level and showing them how to teach the reading of their content materials. There are several principles of instruction to which they would subscribe in theory but not in practice. There are five which are particularly critical. We identify them as "Instructional Provisions" and suggest to content teachers that they should be present in all of their teaching.

First: provide for levels of ability and achievement. Lip service is given to serving individual differences. When a teacher has thirty students in a classroom studying U. S. history and has but one text—a common situation—does he provide for his students' range of ability and achievement? He should if they are all to learn as well as they are able. But how can this be done? Frustrations experienced in the attempt force teachers to reject the principle as a noble theory but an impossible practice.

Second: provide for difference in learning rate. This is closely akin to the first, relating to individual differences. We know that even when students have similar ability and achievement levels—as measured by standardized tests—their rates of learning may differ considerably. Within the framework of the regular curriculum and using materials available to them, how do science teachers, for example, account for these differences among their students?

3 Third: provide for transformation of skills. As students move from subject to subject, they are met with a variety of reading demands. The variety is caused by the composition of the required material, not by each content area having particularly unique skills. Most of the reading skills which we can identify are essential to successful reading in all subject areas. However, in each area each skill has to be applied differently because of the composition of the materials to which it is applied. Students, therefore, need to learn how to *transform* skills as they move from one subject to another. Reading to draw conclusions—a sophisticated skill—is applied differently in mathematics than it is in social studies. Reading for main idea in narrative material in English class is much different from reading for main idea in a science text. How does the content teacher account for this transformation and assure it for his students?

4 Fourth: provide for concept formation and application. We find that much teaching at the secondary level fosters rote memorization and, consequently, students read primarily for detail. Many do not learn how to perceive relationships among the details, to formulate concepts. As a result, these students experience difficulty when required to use the information in a new context where the details they have memorized do not fit but where the concept represented by the details should be applied. Content teachers should show students how to develop concepts and apply them as they read and react to their required assignments. Again the question is, how is this done?

5 Fifth: provide for students' active participation in learning. This is one of the most critical provisions. One needs only to walk through the halls of a junior or senior high school any day of the week and any time of the day to find that in at least 80 per cent of the rooms the students are only passively involved in the learning process, with the teacher being the active participant. We know that when lessons are structured to involve students more actively in study and exploration of ideas, much more learning takes place. Lessons can be structured in this manner so students develop essential skills as well as important concepts. Intraclass grouping is essential; but since it is a traumatic experience for secondary teachers, this provision is frequently omitted from instruction. The question content teachers have is, again, "how?"

Methods and Materials

Content teachers do not need to be convinced that their students need help. They need more than reminders and clarifications. They need practical suggestions that have proven successful. To these they will respond. Methods and materials which we found successful at the Demonstration Center and elsewhere are presented in the film series.

We show teachers how to analyze their assignments to determine the skill or skills that should be emphasized by students as they read the text. We show them how to prepare students for a reading assignment by establishing purposes for reading and, particularly, by giving direction in the application of the essential skills. Then we show them how to construct reading guide materials. These guides help students apply skills in such a way that they are conscious of the process involved in the skill and are also aware of the concepts being developed and applied. These guides are so constructed that, in one class, students can react to the same material at different levels of comprehension, thereby serving the levels of ability and achievement represented in the class. We show teachers how to graduate the level of difficulty of their questions and guides so students apply skills at increasingly sophisticated levels.

We show them how to use the guides to develop independence in learning. The guides are also designed to serve as the basis for reading to and discussion of the major concepts of the unit being studied. This makes possible more active participation on their part.

Summary

Developing reading skills demanded by content subjects is primarily a matter of making practical application of substantiated theory. Even as we have to show students how to develop and practice new learning skills, we have found that we must show content teachers how to develop and apply new teaching skills.

We have test evidence to show that when content teachers make the above provisions a part of their teaching, students' learning increases significantly. It has been my pleasure to see teachers from the Center give workshops in schools and to find them both enthusiastic and articulate about their experiences in teaching their students the reading skills demanded by their content material. This is the kind of evidence that brings pleasure: enthusiastic endorsement by teachers and improved competence of students.

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3. Some Useful Classroom Practices and Procedures in Reading in the Content Fields

GWEN HORSMAN

READING INSTRUCTION is needed in virtually all classes which deal with subjects in the content areas, especially in the first year of such courses. New vocabularies and concepts are difficult for the capable readers as well as for the less competent readers. Many teachers who recognize this fact are at a loss in helping students to gain in reading power because they have not been subjected to courses in *methods* of teaching. A review of some practices which have helped to eliminate reading difficulties in the different fields of instruction may prove helpful to these teachers.

A careful and thoughtful examination of the textbook goes a long way in helping to capture the interest of students who are studying in a particular field.

a. look at the pictures—talk about them
b. discuss the table of contents—notice the organization
c. discover the author's style of writing—his viewpoint
d. observe the format of the individual chapters
e. anticipate the vocabulary to be met—examine the new words
f. notice charts, graphs and maps—how informative are they?

The above procedure requires several class periods of examination, but usually results in a more successful experience of consideration and study of the text.

Accompanying this oral attack on the text, or following it, can be written exercises which are challenging and stimulating.

a. Students studying the chapter headings can list questions they think will be answered in the text, types of problems they think will be solved, and issues they feel will be discussed.
b. Making a written list of the words they already know which are unique to the particular subject-matter field often helps to remove difficulties in reading and stimulates an interest in the text.
c. Spotting those chapters which they anticipate will be most interesting, listing these with related readings, helps students to recognize relationships between the text and their everyday lives.

An excellent practice for encouraging a continuing interest in the text is to suggest to students that each obtain a notebook which can be used to parallel the learning which is gained from the text. The notebook can be divided into several sections:

a. the newly acquired vocabulary
b. the reading skills necessary for maximum interpretation of the text
c. questions to which a student wishes to learn the answers
d. newly learned facts
e. books and articles which relate to the reading in the text.
f. a committee of students can be assigned the task of making a class dictionary, using the words and phrases listed by individuals in their own notebooks.

In a classroom situation where a group of students are unable to read the assigned text the teacher can suggest group reports where the more capable readers report on those sections of the text which are too difficult for the less capable to master. The slower readers can be assigned reports from books secured on lower reading levels but related in context to the subject at hand. In this manner all the students are contributing to the learning that is taking place but each on his ability level.

For those students having trouble with textbook reading, assignments can be made in the following areas:

a. map making
b. graphs and tables
c. construction of scenes
d. designs of costumes
e. collecting of appropriate pictures.

A well-planned, carefully designed program of outside activities will go a long way in keeping all of the students interested in the textbook which held little promise at the start of the school term. When the classroom teacher recognizes the many levels of abilities and the varied areas of interest, individualized assignments can be made which promote academic and personal growth.

In many content areas it is not essential that *all* of the students read *all* of the text. A course can be planned which requires a minimum amount of reading from the text, where only the less difficult sections of the book are studied.

For average students the text may be presented in the traditional manner, covering the regular course, as designed. For accelerated learners, a vast amount of research work can be planned which falls outside of the classroom text, such as reports, debates, and panel discussions. This procedure precludes the giving of a single test or examination to the class; several different kinds of tests will have to be prepared for these students if they are to be tested and marked on what they studied.

When students are measured only by themselves the matter of *grading* the members of this hypothetical class will not be difficult. They will simply be marked on individual growth and development. In this way education considers the individual and his welfare.

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C. SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL

1. Learning to Write Through Reading Literature

Arno Jewett

Although research has not yet provided valid answers to the problem, there are at least three good arguments for using literature as a medium for teaching pupils to write. Since eminent literature is the treasury of man's thoughts and wisdom and the record of mankind's failures and accomplishments, it contains ideas worth thinking and writing about.

Teachers who have tried to teach pupils to write know that one of the greatest weaknesses in student compositions is lack of substance—of solid content. The common classroom refrain to most composition assignments on topics such as "My Most Embarrassing Moment" or "My Favorite Pet," is, "I can't think of anything to say!" And even those who can think of something are unlikely to have anything worth saying on this type of topic. Ideas from literature, carefully weighed and considered by pupils, can provide solid content for composition work.

Several of the curriculum study centers established as part of Project English are teaching units of rhetoric and composition which are closely related to literature.

In the University of Nebraska Curriculum Center the composition and language activities are expected to grow out of the pupils' experiences with literature. Learning in all three areas is to be fostered simultaneously. The Nebraska teachers believe that pupils can best understand the nature and possibilities of the English language by being exposed to literature of superior quality over a long period of time. Under the leadership of Paul Olson and Frank Rice, the Nebraska program in composition tries to give students:

(1) a sense of the expressive possibilities of the sound of language;
(2) a capacity to manipulate syntactic patterns and to choose the "most desirable" syntactic pattern;
(3) a capacity to manipulate simple rhetorical devices (metaphor, simile, etc.); and
(4) a capacity to write in fictional modes analogous to those studied in literature readings and to add more analytic modes of writing to these.

For example, teachers in secondary schools following the program developed at the University of Nebraska might ask tenth graders who have read Stephen Crane's "The Open Boat" to write a paragraph developing the following idea: "It would be difficult to describe the subtle brotherhood of man that was here established on the seas. . . . No one mentioned it. But it dwelt in the boat, and each man felt it warm him." Students would then be asked to find another example of imposed brotherhood from real life or history or literature and to write a theme of comparison and contrast presenting their own reflections and conclusions.

In its *End-of-Year Examinations in English for College-Bound Students, Grades 9-12,* the Commission on English of the College Entrance Examination Board has published a series of essay questions based on literary works. These questions are broad enough to require the student to recall one or more significant literary works which he has read and to make a critical analysis or estimate of point of view, characterization, or theme. In grade 12, for example, students are asked to consider this statement: "The great writers of the past excel even the best writers of our own time in their treatment of such problems as the role of undeserved suffering in human experience; the relationship between power and moral responsibility; the conflict between individuality and conformity; man's search for the truth about himself."

Then they are given one hour in which to write a carefully planned composition in which they agree or disagree with one of the problems in the above statement by discussing two single literary works: one by "a great of the past" (pre-twentieth century) and the other by one of the best writers of our own time. Of course, the first time that a student who is accustomed

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to true-false, multiple-choice, and completion examinations faces this type of question, he is likely to look and act blank, but with some help from his teacher on how to read in depth and to make critical judgments, he may acquire gradually the habit of looking for major insights and values in literature and of comparing and contrasting the pieces of poetry, fiction, and non-fiction which he reads. Literature abounds with choice lines which are excellent for composition topics.

In addition to strengthening the content of a pupil's composition, the study of literature should under certain conditions improve his style of writing. This is my second argument. As you know, several famous writers including Ben Franklin, Robert Louis Stevenson, and W. Somerset Maugham have attributed at least some of their stylistic accomplishments to wide reading of excellent authors and the influence of various styles of writing.

Today there seems to be a renewed interest in using choice pieces of description in both prose and poetry as models for student composition. The directors of the curriculum study center in English at Northwestern University last summer examined over a thousand compositions written by high school students and concluded that the most serious weakness pervading the themes was a flatness of diction, a lack of choice imagery and metaphor, a paucity of specific, concrete, sensory details. One method followed by high school teachers in the Northwestern center was to emphasize the close observation by pupils of objects in their immediate environment. Teachers collected examples from standard prose works, such as the section called "I Observe" in Chapter II of *David Copperfield*.

A useful type of prose model is a description of an ordinary occurrence—one which students observe frequently in an off-handed way. One example, which is from George R. Stewart's novel *Storm,* describes a sudden rain in San Francisco. To make students conscious of style, the teacher would call attention to the descriptive nouns and verbs, the alliteration, the onomatopoetic language, the simple, fresh diction, and balanced sentences in the following two paragraphs:

> "Water spattered upon the sidewalks in rain-drops. Water ran in the gutters; it gurgled through the gratings of the storm drains; it dropped from awnings and cornices; it cascaded from broken drain-pipes.
>
> "Sleek wet asphalt reflected the glow of neon lights in long unreal lines of pink and blue. Drivers of cars leaned forward nervously, peering through the windshield wipers. The professionals—truck- and taxi-men—sped along as nonchalantly as ever; their impudent wheels threw water from the puddles; pedestrians drew back, fearful or angry. Street-cars came along stolidly; from beneath their wheels little sprays of water flew sideways."

There are many other qualities of good style that could be discussed here: the use of figurative language, the contrast between the nonchalant taxi-men and the angry pedestrians, and the comparison between the water thrown by the cabs and trucks and that sprayed by the wheels of the street car. Choice literature, of course, is replete with similar examples of effective prose style which students should note and adapt to their own writing purposes.

The importance of making students conscious of the styles used by authors for different purposes and of experimenting with these styles has been pointed out by Jerome Bruner in his oft-quoted volume *The Process of Education.* Dr. Bruner states: "One may try to give the high school student a sense of styles by having him read contrasting authors, yet final insight into style may come only when the student himself tries his hand at writing in different styles."[1]

My third argument for relating composition work to literary study is that a study of choice diction, figurative language, symbolism, syntax, rhythm, point of view, irony, contrast, and mood in both areas should lead students to discriminate between shoddy writing and superior composition. In other words, this type of study should lead students to recognize and appreciate the best literature available to them.

What scientific evidence do we have to support these three arguments? The answer is "Very little." Frank Heys, Jr. has reported (*The English Journal,* May 1962) the results of a study in which a writing class wrote a theme a week and a

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[1] Jerome S. Bruner, *The Process of Education.* Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1961, p. 29-30.

"reading" class wrote a theme every three weeks but spent a class-period a week reading books they had selected. Mr. Heys concluded that "For many students reading is a positive influence on writing ability." He added that "We need to find out how much reading, and what kind, will produce the optimum effect on ability to write."

In other words carefully controlled research is needed to discover whether the three arguments which I have advanced in this paper are valid or not.

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D. SENIOR HIGH LEVEL

1. Reading in History: Concept Development or Myth Making

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THE STEADY accumulation of "facts" resulting from inter-disciplinary research is posing tremendous problems to students and teachers of history. If meaningful learning is to occur, emphasis must shift from accumulation of more and more data to better techniques of developing and using new knowledge. This requires that the teacher act as a resource person in guiding the student to develop and extend adequate concepts. The teacher then must skillfully direct student inquiry in the field of history so that he proceeds in his search for knowledge in an organized manner. To do this effectively both teacher and student must know what history is and must have defined the purpose for its study.

Many definitions of history exist ranging from "imaginative reconstruction of the past in a truly scientific and faithful artistic whole" to "a simple statement of what happened, giving plain unvarnished facts and avoiding personal assumptions or judgments."

Likewise, there are many reasons for studying history (whether these be explicit or implicit). Some of the most common are: (1) to satisfy curiosity about the mysteries and questions of the past; (2) to entertain and edify; (3) to exploit the dramatic and spectacular; (4) to teach political, moral or ideological lessons; (5) to leap to grandiose philosophies of history.

But a historical fact never speaks for itself. Simply memorizing a mass of dates, names, and happenings is not learning. Students must be aided in selecting and ordering facts into conceptual frameworks if true learning is to occur. In directing this process, however, the teacher cannot avoid having some philosophy of history.

Furthermore, the writers of the history books were guided by some historical philosophy in selecting, interpreting and evaluating the facts. After all, it is impossible for history to be written from nobody's point of view and for no one's enlightenment.

If the teacher is to function effectively as a resource in guiding the student's learning in history, she must: (1) have a clear, explicit, operational philosophy of history; (2) know the historical philosophies of the major historians; (3) prepare reading lists which include histories written in the frameworks of contrasting philosophies; (4) be aware of the limitations of the records available in many historical periods.

The teacher should introduce the student to histories stressing the deep impersonal and unconscious processes which produce great historical changes and to those histories which rest on the "hero" theory. She should help the student examine the limitations of each philosophy: e.g., the denial of the one of the power of ideas and ideals and the ignoring by the other of the impact of the social, cultural, and physical forces.

Teachers should also aid their students in perceiving systematic error in historical writing. Such error arises when the historian interprets events, excluding contributing or material causes which thus distort interpretation. An example is the treatment by historians of the collapse of the Roman Empire. More than fifty explanations exist. None is regarded as complete and most are not considered adequate. Available evidence will not support the common view that the empire was inevitably destined to collapse. In fact, as the noted historian Starr points out, general explanations for the collapse of the Roman Empire are linked with the preconceptions—social, economic, or religious—of the writer preparing them.

Students should also be aided in detecting biased propagandistic writing. In doing this, it is sheer innocence to advise teachers to use the seven principles prepared thirty years ago for the analysis of propaganda; ineffective when applied to modern propaganda, they are wholely ineffectual in dealing with historical writings.

Myths—in the sense of uncritical acceptance of beliefs—arise in the study of history through permitting or encouraging students to accept or produce simplistic interpretations of complicated patterns of events. Another cause of myth producing is the principal use of books which incorporate such interpretations or the advocacy of books or slogans by the teacher.

It is difficult to detect propaganda in historical writing because the facts appropriate to a historian's or teacher's theories may be overvalued and other facts (equally valid) undervalued or overlooked. An example is the recent conclusion concerning the superiority of Russian education to that of the United States.

In the hands of master writers (such as Livy, Tacitus, Gibbon, and Mommsen) history may become a series of rhetorical set pieces which build up seemingly irrefutable arguments from probability rather than from factual data. Such propaganda may be more convincing than carefully presented history. As an example, contrast the picture of Rome of Tiberius given by historians drawing on Tacitus as compared to that shown by Marsh.

Current history texts contain many erroneous generalizations arising from oversimplification of complex patterns of events, ignoring or undervaluing evidence, ignorance of special fields (such as naval history, the role of espionage, economics, medicine, etc.) and the uncritical acceptance of propaganda appearing in older sources.

History is research for investigation of relevant data. The student's task in comparing historical writings is to evolve a conceptual framework which avoids systematic interpretive error while it is closely related to the actualities of human life. The teacher must aid the student to avoid the illusions that history is an exact science which gives final answers. As one historian has noted, each generation must reexamine past historical information to evolve the meanings important to its own time. Starr concludes that in the end all that students of history are attempting is to explain the modern world to themselves while they speak of the past.

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2. The Creative Approach

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IN OUR society literature, and the study of literature, are generally regarded as admirable pursuits. We live in what we are happy to call a literate society, which means that, as far as we know, most people know how to read. And reading is very closely allied with literature for us.

Reading cannot be separated from literature. What is reading? Is it the ability to decode certain mutually accepted symbols, which some person has encoded? Possibly, but surely this is reading at its most basic; surely there is more to reading than this.

Reading and literature are endlessly intertwined, and if we can untangle them, we might be in a better position to start thinking of the creative response to literature. We all know that in reading we have skills such as the word-attack skills, phonetic analysis, structural analysis, dictionary skills, and last but far from least, comprehension skills. Many of these skills are used when we tackle literature, but with literature we must go beyond this, we must try to see further than the actual meaning of the words themselves, we must attempt, as one scholar has said, to read between the lines.

In the course of studies of the Ontario Department of Education we read this about the study of literature:

> The main objectives in the study of literature are the cultivation of a taste for good reading, the enlargement of experience, the stimulation of the imagination, the enrichment of knowledge, and the development of character.

We also read:

> Although the subject of English naturally divides into a study of English Literature and Composition, the close relationship between the two phases must be stressed, through integration and synthesis. Adequate emphasis should be given to all phases of the English program, including reading, oral reading, and speech.

You will note that so far there has been no reference to learning certain poems by rote, no suggestion that there are certain magic guide-posts, certain stories, poems, plays, pieces of prose, names of figures of speech, which once memorized will make a person literate, in our special sense of the word. No! The suggestion here, which I would like to enlarge upon, is that literature is concerned with all the language arts; that we learn to write by reading; that we must discuss and argue about things; that we recognize the truth of Dr. Diltz' suggestion, in his book *Poetic Pilgrimage:*

> The aim of the teacher is not to fill with facts and lifeless abstractions the notebooks of his pupils, but to *quicken their spirits.*

Literature would seem to divide itself into three main areas: prose, poetry, and drama; and there are certain skills to be learned in the unlocking of these. First, we must realize that not everything is meant to be read in exactly the same way; some pieces are meant to be simply entertaining, while others call for a deeper response.

May I suggest that the chief thoughts to be borne in mind when we are attempting to teach literature to our children are these: literature is an appreciation subject, which means that it must be enjoyed as well as understood. To be enjoyed, it must be understood in more ways than one. We must show children what there is in it for them, what special skills have been used to create certain effects, why some novels are considered classics, why some poems are agreed upon by the experts as first-rate. We must always show the student that we are attempting to *interpret* the things written by others, that knowledge of certain skills and techniques may help us in our interpretation, but that there has never been, and never will be for any piece of literature one set and final meaning. As T. S. Eliot himself said, when asked for the "real meaning" of certain lines in "Murder in the Cathedral":"I really don't remember what I meant when I wrote it. The important thing is, though, what does it mean to you?"

We must teach our students to discuss, to disagree if need be with the accepted mode of thinking, as long as they can support their arguments with logic and some degree of knowledge. In this subject of literature we have the first of the social studies, where we attempt to open the student's mind to the great ideas of the past and the present, where we try to give him words to use, ideas to mull around in his head, ammunition for argument, and a glance at the eternal truths.

What are some of the literary skills? A few follow:

The ability to interpret clues which reveal character, the way people feel, the way people feel towards one another.

The ability to infer the setting of the story, either from direct or indirect evidence.

The ability to distinguish between shades of meaning of words.

The ability to spot a series of clues scattered throughout a piece.

The ability to recognize the theme of the piece.

The ability to visualize, to build up pictures in the mind.

The ability to see and hear characters as three-dimensional.

The ability to anticipate, from what has gone before.

The ability to project into the piece, and to connect it with personal experience.

The ability to recognize form in poetry.

The ability to recognize the emotional appeal of words in poetry, to see what the poet was getting at, how he did this, and why.

The recognition of technical pointers, such as allegory, hyperbole, apostrophe, irony, metonymy, etc.—not as esoteric abracadabras, but as devices used by poets to gain the effects they desired.

A true appreciation of the poet's use of imagery, rhythmic patterns, and rhyme.

The recognition of different kinds of prose writing, the novel, short story, essay: of why the author chose this form, and how he went about it.

The ability to find climaxes, conflicts, stylistic elements in a story and to see why they are there.

Recognition of techniques such as the flashback, foreshadowing, etc.

Recognizing the three essentials for the survival of a piece: artistry, vitality, and significance.

Recognizing the special techniques used in the drama.

Recognizing the different types of drama, comedy, tragedy, etc.

Recognizing that plays are meant to be played.

In teaching classes these skills we are setting them to thinking, questioning, asking the all-important question: *Why?* And this is absolutely essential if literature is to live. Students should be encouraged to ask questions of themselves and of us as teachers, always bearing in mind the fact that, although we have more experience than they do, and more knowledge, our ideas and interpretations are not necessarily correct. If students bog down, and cannot seem to find any meaning in a piece, then we as teachers must guide them, help them with the odd pointer or hint.

Students should be encouraged to ask questions such as these:

Is this piece honest, and sincere?

Does it hold water, even when a fantasy?

Do the characters stir my sympathy?

Is the language fresh, colourful, lively? Or it is a mass of cliché?

Is there suspense of any kind?

Do I want to go on with this piece?

Is the ending possible, probable, or inevitable?

Is the ending believable or forced?

Do I remain interested from start to finish?

In poetry, particularly, are the epithets strong, vital, new?

Does it sound good?

In plays especially, are the characters acceptable?

Always followed by the clincher: *Why?* or *Why Not?*

There are three main ways of tackling a piece in school: the teacher reads it all to the class, the teacher reads parts, and the class reads the rest to themselves, or the class reads the whole thing alone.

After the reading, then what? Harking back to my quotation from the departmental course of studies, a piece of advice which is repeated in practically every book on the teaching of literature which comes to mind, let us remember that discussion, oral reading, dramatization and friendly disagreement are essential parts of any good literature lesson. Thus, the following activities might be of value:

What happened then? (Sequels, both written and oral, are valuable.)
Defending an unpopular character.
Re-writing the ending.
Recapping the whole piece in one sentence.
Giving a brief outline of the piece, for the benefit of one who has not read it.
Criticizing constructively.
Comparison of one author with another.
Recasting in a different form.
Writing in the same vein, either before or after reading.
Searching out other poems, stories, plays, along the same lines.
Acting plays, speaking poetry chorally, debating values and meanings, discussing, evaluating, illustrating.

Most of this discussion has been on the actual lesson in school. This does not mean that supplementary reading, the visit to the library is ignored, or thought unimportant. On the contrary, the major aim in the teaching of literature is to develop the reading person, who will choose first-class material, who will become an avid reader in later life. It has been stated by experts that the true test of efficacy of our teaching of literature today is not the mark the child receives on the paper, but the type of reading he does ten or twenty years from now.

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D. SENIOR HIGH LEVEL

1. Developing Essential Reading Skills in the English Program

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THE TRUE function of the teacher of English as a teacher of reading is to help students read literature—literature, that is, broadly interpreted. The skills to be taught, other than those such as word recognition which are basic to all reading, are fairly specific. They include such skills as following plot sequence, using clues to character, appreciating imagery.

Delimitation of his responsibility helps to make it possible for the teacher of English to play his role as a teacher of reading. He should not be expected to teach reading skills in general; his job is a particular one. However, when we inquire how well he plays his role, we may find some problems. This paper is concerned with ways in which we can appraise the success of his teaching, ways to distinguish between real teaching of reading skills and merely providing opportunity to read.

Understanding the Process

One of the characteristics of the teacher who is really teaching is that he understands something of the psychology of the reading process. He knows enough about the sequence of development of a skill with which he is working so that he can arrange his lessons effectively. He also knows, because he understands the process, what is wrong when a class is having trouble. He knows how to go back into the sequence of development and straighten out the misunderstanding where it started.

A second difference between real teaching and merely providing practice involves the students' own understanding of what skills they are learning and why. Are they merely reading a passage in a general, routine sort of way and answering so-called comprehension questions about it, or are they consciously reading for main ideas, skimming for details, reading to make inferences? And do they know why they are reading in this particular way? One of the quickest ways to evaluate a teacher's work is to listen while he gives his reading assignment. Has he included the three essential elements: what to do, why it should be done, how to do it?

Seeing Relationships

The attention the teacher gives to helping students understand the interrelationships among the skills is a third characteristic of good skills teaching. Imagery in reading is just reading for certain kinds of details. Reading to summarize can be done successfully only if the student knows how to follow and use the author's organizational patterns. Reading to outline is nothing more than putting down on paper in a standard form main ideas and their related details. Does the teacher stress these relationships? Good teachers of reading do.

A fourth criterion has to do with the amount of planned transfer which is present in the teaching. The typical student reacts to an isolated exercise like this: "Well, that's over! I did pretty well—only two mistakes on the whole page." The exercise is done; it can be forgotten. Hopefully, the English teacher does not use too many of these isolated exercises. The best work is done with the regular literature textbook or with closely related materials, but there will be times when a teacher needs the help of a separate book or workbook arranged for the systematic development of specific skills. Whether he gets full value from this kind of practice material depends upon how he arranges for transfer. It is a matter of developing an attitude among students—an attitude not only of expecting to learn but of expecting to use what is learned. If, for example, the teacher has had the class do some practice exercises in organizational skills, he must find an opportunity to show the students, perhaps when they study the next well-organized essay, how much more they learn and how much more easily they learn if they identify the author's pattern or structure in advance. Transfer cannot be taken for granted.

Choosing Functional Material

Also, a teacher shows whether he is really teaching reading or merely providing an opportunity to read by his choice of materials with which to teach. As he becomes a better teacher, his choices change. At first, he often likes the objective-type exercise book, but as he becomes skilled he tends to reject this routine drill material. He wants material which explains and illustrates the skills, which is arranged in a careful sequence of difficulty in relation to each of the skills so that he can break into the sequence wherever his class needs helps, which is both suitable for teaching the various skills and as similar as possible to the materials in which the students need to apply the skills. And, of course, he wants material that is interesting. The learning of a skill need not be dull.

Setting a Defensible Goal

One final understanding which characterizes the teacher who is really teaching reading is almost a dedication to the idea that the school exists, not to cram facts into students' heads, but rather to help them acquire power to learn for themselves. In the English class, the important consideration is not what particular pieces of literature are being read. What *is* important is that students are learning skills and attitudes which permit them to read *any* pieces of literature they may encounter.

It is hard to evaluate the results of this kind of teaching. Standardized tests do not do it. Tests of students' mastery of facts do not do it either—some students are very good parrots. What should be measured—and so far, it is possible to do this only by informal observation—is the power students have developed to use skills when the practical occasion for using them arises. When they need to read for main ideas, do they do so? When a poem is filled with vivid imagery, do they have the skill to read with a kind of built-in color television?

Statements made in this paper are as true of the social studies teacher with the skills particularly pertinent to his field, or to any other teacher with his appropriate skills, as to the teacher of English. Efficient teaching of reading has the same basic characteristics in any field. We are moving gradually toward a time when reading will be taught mainly in the subject fields with the regular content materials in the regular daily lessons of the course—it never should have been otherwise.

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C. SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL

1. How Much Does a Content Teacher Need to Know About the Teaching of Reading?

OLIVE S. NILES

HOW MUCH does a content teacher need to know about teaching reading? One way to approach this question is to remember the difference between a good reading teacher and a good content teacher—both teaching reading.

The reading teacher's reasoning is like this: "These students need help with skimming—or some other skill. We will work directly on this skill until we have made some progress." The skill comes first in this teacher's thinking. He doesn't care what the content is so long as it is interesting and suited to the maturity of the students.

The content teacher who understands how to teach reading reasons otherwise: "This is today's lesson in our text. As I examine these pages, I see a chance to help students divide some of these difficult words into syllables, or read these two paragraphs for their key ideas, or. . . ." The content comes first. The skill or skills to be taught *depend on the nature of the content.*

Both teachers are right. Not enough effort has hitherto been given to understanding the content teacher's approach.

The fact is, however, that most content teachers don't understand this or any other approach to teaching reading. If they get one look at the long lists of reading skills, they often panic. Perhaps reading consultants will accomplish more in working with these teachers if they attempt less. There are six lessons—not easy lessons, to be sure—which provide a foundation from which a good content teacher can begin to develop as a good content teacher of reading.

Lesson one is a brief description of the reading process, just enough to help teachers understand that reading must be broken down into specific skills if it is to be taught.

The second lesson is about vocabulary: recognition and meaning. Secondary teachers of content subjects need some specific approaches to word study. For example, it is easy to show them that all multisyllabic words fall into four groups so far as pronunciation is concerned. They need to teach students how to attack each type of word. It is also easy to demonstrate the usefulness of context and structure clues, both of which help students to gain independent power over words.

Lesson three concerns the directed reading lesson approach to textbook study —or, if the students are mature enough, the SQ3R. SQ3R is nothing but a grown-up directed reading lesson. This is the point at which, hopefully, content teachers will realize that content and reading skills can be taught simultaneously and that, indeed, they *do* have time to teach reading.

The fourth lesson has to do with the use of the library for research and for enjoyment. Single-textbook teaching is as outdated as the Model-T. Teachers must realize their role in the selection and use of library materials. Most teachers agree that they want students to read in depth. Many do not seem to know that depth is not possible without breadth.

In lesson five, teachers are helped to become constructively critical of their textbooks. They need help in using their present textbooks more efficiently and in choosing new ones which will actually help them to teach reading as well as content.

Lesson six attempts to give teachers further insight into the complexity of reading. At this point they enjoy discussing some of the skills most important in their own subjects. The more hardy teacher will respond to a suggestion that he specialize—select a skill he feels is particularly important and learn to be an expert in teaching it. No one content teacher needs to undertake to teach all of the skills.

Visualize what would happen in a secondary school if *all* content teachers—taught vocabulary with emphasis on power, not memorization of lists,, taught efficient textbook study, fully cooperated in a library program, and specialized—each teacher for himself—in just one reading skill which he could teach extremely well.

The theory that every teacher should be a teacher of reading in the secondary school is sound. What is essential is a much simpler, and at the same time a more sophisticated, procedure for involving content teachers in techniques which they can learn without great effort and use immediately.

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3. Reading Literature: An Act of Creation

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READING LITERATURE as an act of creation demands three abilities: (1) understanding literally; (2) interpreting symbolically; and (3) appreciating the relevance of literature to life. Though I will consider each of these abilities in this order, the order in which they are commonly discussed in the classroom, ultimately all three abilities are inseparable for the mature reader who reads literature as an act of creation.

First, what does a high school student read when he reads what literature says, its literal statement? For example, what does a high school student read in this paragraph from *David Copperfield?*

> It was Miss Murdstone who was arrived, and a gloomy-looking lady she was; dark, like her brother, whom she greatly resembled in face and voice, with very heavy eyebrows, nearly meeting over her large nose, as if, being disabled by the wrongs of her sex from wearing whiskers, she had carried them to that account. She brought with her two uncompromising hard black boxes, with her initials on the lids in hard brass nails. When she paid the coachman she took her money out of a hard steel purse, and she kept the purse in a very jail of a bag which hung upon her arm by a heavy chain, and shut up like a bite. I had never, at that time, seen such a metallic lady altogether as Miss Murdstone was.

Understanding Literally

At the beginning clearly, in the middle more subtly, and explicitly again at the end, the student reads generalized interpretive statements:

> . . . as if, being disabled by the wrongs of her sex from wearing whiskers . . .
>
> I had never, at that time, seen such a metallic lady altogether as Miss Murdstone was.

These interpretive statements will probably linger longest in the reader's memory, especially after he sees Miss Murdstone in action in later chapters. Without literally repeating, the statements echo each other.

The echos have undertones, however. The generalizations are supported by highly repetitive, redundant detail: "dark," "heavy eyebrows," "uncompromising hard black boxes," "hard brass nails," "hard steel purse," "a very jail of a bag," "a heavy chain," "shut up like a bite." A literal-minded editor would probably have eliminated all those *hard's.* But Dickens knew better. Even though the reader may ultimately forget many of the clues, they multiply for a purpose.

The high school reader needs first, then, to read literature literally in two ways. He needs to be able to understand whatever explicit interpretation the author furnishes, and he needs to be aware of the way the details shape that interpretation. His awareness may be either unconscious or conscious. If it is conscious, he will be reading very slowly and analytically. If it is unconscious, he will be reading quickly. Whether he reads quickly or slowly in keeping with his purpose for reading, to read the letters (the literal meaning of reading literally), the high school reader has to be able to let the words supply him with ideas, impressions, feelings, and facts, subordinating his own experience for the moment. As Virginia Woolf puts it, the reader of literature for a time has almost to become the author *(7).*

Learning to Read Literally

How can teachers help the high school student to develop his ability to read both generalizations and detail literally? Analysis of a paragraph, like the one from *David Copperfield,* may help, with the teacher posing questions that will lead the student to discover the generalizations, their function, and their position in the paragraph. Finding how the redundant details structure the idea the paragraph develops can help the reader realize the subordinate, yet important,

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role details play. Students then are expected to apply the insight they have gained through the analytic demonstration to further reading.

Yet, if the students apply the process of the demonstration too carefully, they will never get through 800 pages of *David Copperfield*. Furthermore, the redundant detail will become over-exaggerated, and it's quite exaggerated enough for twentieth century tastes. If a teacher occasionally asks students to analyze closely, the passages chosen must be key ones, and the students should then be encouraged to return-reading rapidly, absorbing unconsciously rather than analyzing consciously as they read. If a student wants to understand some point more clearly (and let it be understood that his wish could easily be aroused by his teacher, that it's not necessarily an inherent need), he should then, and only then, be encouraged to look closely at detail.

A student can also learn to become the author as he reads by becoming an author himself. In "A Generative Rhetoric of the Sentence" *(2)*, and "A Generative Rhetoric of the Paragraph" *(3)*, Francis Christensen justly claims that starting writing with narrative and description, rather than with exposition, will not only make better writers, but will also make better readers of literature. The principle of his theory of rhetoric he found in a statement of John Erskine's: "When you write, you make a point, not by subtracting as though you sharpened a pencil, but by adding." His rhetoric, based on a study of what writers do do, rather than on what someone thinks they should do, would generate detail to support a base in both sentences and paragraphs.

Students reading any novel might write a paragraph characterizing someone they feel strongly about, someone they like very much or have a strong aversion to. A student might wish to tell of his first meeting with his subject. Or he might wish to be more general, describing the person as he characteristically is, rather than fixing him at a given moment in time. In either case, the student will start from a generalized statement, supply the reader detail to help demonstrate the truth of the generalized statement, and end by summing up. There are, of course, other ways he could structure his characterization, but, as Christensen points out, this paragraph pattern is the most common. It also follows the structure of the paragraph from *David Copperfield*. By becoming a fellow creator in his own way, the student is in a better position to understand the creation others have made.

Interpreting Symbolically

As he understands the whole created by literal meaning of generalizations specified by detail, the student reader should be beginning to think about what further meaning the parts and the whole may have. He should begin to interpret for himself. To his interpretation he brings his experience of life and his experience of reading. Because individual experience is various, individual students will interpret differently. For example, though it seems impossible that anyone could really know the fictional, therefore bigger-than-life, Miss Murdstone, a student who has ever met a paler version of her will recognize her right away. To him she will seem real. A student whose experience has been happily limited to normal, natural adults, full of flaws, will receive a vaguer impression. He will need to pay closer attention to details to get the picture. Even then, he is likely to think her unreal.

Neither student, however, is free to infer that Miss Murdstone was a sweet, ineffectual person, somewhat like David's mother. A reader is not free to interpret any way he chooses, ignoring the literal clues. Yet, he is not reading if he doesn't see meaning beyond his own measurement of reality. Miss Murdstone's outer appearance, appurtenances, and actions forecast her inner weather. The method of exaggerated description also shows how deeply David was depressed on encountering yet another Murdstone. The exaggeration is typical of youth, not of age, and therefore characterizes David too. These are meanings shown, not stated; it is up to the reader to be alert enough to discover them.

Understanding the symbolic import of literal detail and explicit interpretation is a single, unified process for the mature reader, as Margaret Early has pointed out *(4)*. The high school student, however,

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has rarely attained that maturity. To help him become a mature reader, teachers of literature may first call his attention to the two kinds of literal statements—interpretation and detail. Then we help students look below the literal meaning. For a time, students may become very self-conscious about discovering symbols. Increasingly, however, our teaching moves from asking students first to pay attention to the literal meaning and then intuitively to fuse it into deeper significance to asking students to use literal meaning as evidence for their insights into symbolic meaning.

Note that I have not suggested that students learn to read symbolically in place of reading literally. One process does not supplant the other. In the first place, the words we say students are reading literally are themselves symbols. In that sense, all reading is symbolic. In the second place, leaping over literal detail and interpretation to pure symbolic discussion has been the cause of many a misreading, as the reader reads himself, not the piece of literature. As an example, I can cite some college freshman girls who read John Crowe Ransome's touching elegy, "Bells for John Whiteside's Daughter," as the account of a wedding. Among other clues they missed, they failed to notice the most telling clue of all: that every reference to the girl was in the past tense.

Choice of Literature in the Curriculum

To help students become mature, conscious readers of literature, the high school curriculum should start with a base of literature with fairly literal interpretation of detail and progress to literature with highly symbolic interpretation. To symbolize this progression, I would say that the choice of literature to be studied in the high school curriculum should move from Browning's "Pippa's Song" to Donald Justice's "Song."

"Pippa's Song" is very explicitly interpreted in the last two lines:

The year's at the spring
And day's at the morn;
Morning's at seven;
The hill-side's dew-pearled;
The lark's on the wing;
The snail's on the thorn:
God's in his heaven—
All's right with the world!

From their own experience of elation, students can easily see how all the other details fit with the last lines, indeed create them.

These same students could also read Donald Justice's "Song" in exactly the same way:

Morning opened
Like a rose,
And the snow on the roof
Rose-color took.
Oh, how the street
Toward light did leap!
And the lamps went out.
Brightness fell down
From the steeple clock
To the row of shops
And rippled the bricks
Like the scales of a fish,
And all that day
Was a fairy tale
Told once in a while
To a good child.

It was a lovely, rosy morning, like those in a fairy tale. Mornings like that come along "once in a while."

The last four lines don't describe the day itself any more than "All's well with the world" does, but they are far more symbolic, perhaps because a fairy tale is a more finite thing than the world, which embraces so much that meaning blurs. Fairy tales are stories about the basic conflict between good and evil. Rarely in life are the issues so clearly drawn. In fairy tales good regularly triumphs, as it does less regularly in the world. A fairy tale is special; even more special is one "told once in a while to a good child."

Thinking about how the day was like a fairy tale should lead students back to the details of the description. The town pictured is one with lamps, a steeple clock, a row—no more—of shops, and brick paving. It's a fairy tale town, perhaps one high in the Swiss Alps. The light rippling the bricks like the scales of a fish moves, as a fish slips through the water. The comparison of bricks to the scales of fish is startlingly appropriate. For the sake of getting on with the point, I would summarize the significance of the poem in these terms: though beauty is transient, it does come, bringing delight. Never would I make such a summary for students. That's my reading of the poem, not theirs. They'd never say it that way naturally, and I certainly don't want to force my words on them.

There is another kind of transience in this poem which affirms both the literal interpretation of detail and the symbolic meaning. The most sophisticated way to interpret "Song" is to scan it, but that way should be reserved for the advanced student, who is so well acquainted with many poems that he will be able to see the connection between meter and meaning. Scansion will reveal a basic two foot line with a constantly shifting pattern of stress. Students who have read much poetry themselves—and who have attempted to write some—will know that the two foot line is the hardest one to vary as skillfully as Mr. Justice has done, to make his subject and the form he has cast it in part of one organic whole. That Browning varied his two foot line very little in comparison, is, of course, equally a part of the total meaning of *his* poem.

In the study of fiction, as in poetry, the curriculum should start with literature with many interpretations, only slightly symbolic, say with a novel like James Street's *Goodby My Lady. Lord of the Flies* or *The Adventures of Huckleberry Finn*—novels with interpretations highly meaningful on the symbolic level as well as on the literal level—are probably about as far as the high school curriculum for the average student will go. The fiction which places almost the entire burden of interpretation of any kind on the reader is probably well beyond a high school student, who needs more experience with literature to cope with, say, *Ulysses.*

Length of Literature to be Studied

Most of the poetry studied in the high school curriculum is short. Longer works, such as Shakespeare's plays, are studied more as drama than as poetry, although paying attention to selected poetic elements often helps to enhance the dramatic aspects. (Because of time limits, I have chosen to use fiction and poetry as examples in this discussion, ignoring the special reading demands drama makes upon the reader. That would be a good subject for a separate paper.)

The problem of length becomes crucial in the study of fiction. Percy Lubbock opened his key critical work, *The Craft of Fiction (5),* by saying:

> To grasp the shadowy and fantasmal form of a book, to hold it fast, to turn it over and survey it at leisure—that is the effort of a critic of books, and it is perpetually defeated. Nothing, no power, will keep a book steady and motionless before us, so that we may have time to examine its shape and design. As quickly as we read, it melts and shifts in the memory; even at the moment when the last page is turned, a great part of the book, its finer detail, is already vague and doubtful.

If a professional critic of books finds it hard to keep a book before him, should we expect a high school student learning to read literature to find it easy?

I started out with a paragraph from *David Copperfield,* a fine book. But I don't think it belongs in the literature curriculum for all students to study. It's too long. Even the 400 plus page abridgment is too long, and besides, the abridgment isn't Dickens. The abridgers are right about the problem, but wrong about the solution. The literature studied in the high school curriculum should be short *and* whole.

Length, of course, is a relative matter. To a group of sophomores who have read very little, *The Pearl* is long. For a group of advanced seniors, it's a reasonable week-end assignment. Though students may have studied a novel part-by-part, it should never be so long that they cannot comfortably consider the whole in some way. Otherwise they cannot be said to have read the novel, only its parts.

Wide Reading

Is *David Copperfield* passé then? Aren't modern students missing a valuable and delightful reading experience if they don't encounter it? Yes. Of course, we all have to miss some things in the abundant world we inhabit. And a student, like one I know, who spent from Christmas to Easter studying *David Copperfield,* may be missing it and surely is missing all the other reading it has crowded out. Still there certainly ought to be a place for such a fine novel.

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There is a place—for the right student at the right time. The right student will be a fast reader. Fast readers are usually experienced readers; no speed reading course can compensate for experience. So the right student will be an avid reader. He will read *David Copperfield* because he wants to, because he becomes involved in his reading, because he enjoys it. It will not be too long for him to take in his stride.

Caring for reading in the literature program, then, means encouraging students to read widely. Class study of works short enough to be considered as wholes can help them learn how to read; wide reading makes the lesson alive and permanent.

Appreciating the Relevance of Literature to Life

In both class study and individual reading, the real goal is to help students grow in their ability to appreciate literature. A common assumption I find in much of what I read and hear in scholarly discussions of literature is that helping students to read literally and interpret symbolically automatically takes care of appreciation. It's true that few readers can appreciate something they haven't understood in some way. And pleasure does come from the act of understanding, but such intellectual pleasure is not enough.

In a recent novel, *What Can You Do,* a colleague of mine, James Leigh, has shown an uncommitted monster in action. His non-hero is a college freshman at an institution very like ours. In high school the young man has been thoroughly trained to read literature. He can interpret symbols with ease, supporting his interpretations by profuse references to the details of the text. But he has no awareness that any of his interpretations might have meaning for his own way of living. He is emotionally disassociated from the values which he can understand intellectually. I think it is fair to say that he has not appreciated the literature which he has read.

In *Science and Human Values (1)*, J. Bronowski, director of the Jonas Salk Institute, defines the process of appreciation in both science and the arts:

> The poem or the discovery exists in two moments of vision: the moment of appreciation as much as that of creation; for the appreciator must see the movement, wake to the echo which was started in the creation of the work. . . . And the great poem and the deep theorem are new to every reader, and yet are his own experiences, because he himself re-creates them. They are the marks of unity in variety; and in the instant when the mind seizes this for itself, in art or in science, the heart misses a beat.

Inductive Teaching for Appreciation

How can a teacher help a student's heart to miss a beat as he reads? Selection of literature to be studied and guidance in making choices of individual reading, both will help set the student up for making his reading a part of his own experience. The method of teaching literature will be the means to his discovery of both the work of literature and of himself.

Sample materials from the Curriculum Study Center in English at the Carnegie Institute of Technology were published in the February, 1966, issue of the *English Journal*, under the title: "The Inductive Teaching of English." In the introduction to the sample lessons (which include composition and language as well as literature), the authors state the philosophy which has shaped their practice, contrasting it with the view that teaching English is imparting information: *(6)*

> Other teachers tend to think of the English class primarily as a place in which the students discover knowledge and skills. The teacher's role in this process is to provide the students with structured situations . . . [Such teachers] tend to focus upon the *process* of learning: how the student comes to an apprehension of the character of *Macbeth* or of the Captain in *The Secret Sharer* . . . Because such teachers are concerned with these emphases, they tend to pose questions which call upon the students to make discoveries and in so doing create a learning situation.

And in so doing, such teachers create a situation for appreciation. Only one more step is needed; the conscious discovery by the student that the events in literature have relevance to the world he lives in, to the people he knows, to himself. The inductive method can be used equally well for this purpose.

Perhaps teachers, for a period of time, have shied from attempting to help students appreciate the relevance of literature to life because they found themselves conducting amateur group therapy sessions, the literature itself forgotten entirely. But it doesn't *have* to be done that way. Take this haiku by Issa for instance:

Stubborn woodpecker . . .
Still hammering
At twilight
At that single spot

The teacher could ask: "Why does Issa call the woodpecker stubborn? Do people ever behave like the woodpecker? Why?" Such questions don't say: "This is a watchbird watching *you*. Were *you* a woodpecker today?" In other words, such questions don't turn the poem into a moral lesson.

Reading literature as an act of creation, then, asks that the student understand the literal meaning, interpret the symbols, and appreciate the relationship between the literary work and his world.

Eventually both the discovery of relevance and the discovery of symbolic meaning become one with the act of reading the letters. In teaching students to learn how to read literature, we are helping them to create their lives as they become attuned to an already created civilization, enhancing it, pushing back the powers of destruction.

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2. An Integrated Secondary English Curriculum Offering Reading Instruction

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THE NEW YORK STATE Education Department has been encouraging its schools from kindergarten through grade 12 to improve their Language Arts curricula. Under this impetus, a school district in the vicinity of the present writer recently planned an increased emphasis on reading instruction in the regular classrooms of all grades. In the senior high school of the district, this emphasis on reading improvement was to be part of the English curriculum. The present writer was asked to serve as consultant for the English Department. A plan for an in-service course developed from discussions among the consultant, the Superintendent of Schools, and the English Department. Two basic course objectives were agreed upon: to introduce a new emphasis on reading skills into the English curriculum without superseding traditional English lessons, and to integrate the reading teaching with the regular teaching.

This paper will describe the principles and activities by which the in-service course sought to achieve the introduction of the reading instruction into, and its integration with, the traditional English curriculum. The material below is organized into three forces that promote an integrated English curriculum offering reading instruction: (1) certain reading attitudes of the students, (2) certain instructional attitudes of the teacher, and (3) certain reading skills of the students.

Reading Attitudes Promoting an Integrated English Curriculum

There is little point in teaching students reading skills without also teaching them reading attitudes. Foremost of these is that students regard the reading instruction as a means of upgrading their homework. They are becoming better readers to become better self-learners from reading. As the present writer has indicated elsewhere *(4)*, current academic improvement services stress students' learning on their own from reading as an activity balanced with learning in the classroom. Some colleges have revised curricula so that former three-point courses meeting three times a week have become four-point courses still meeting only three times a week, but obliging students to earn the extra point by supplementary reading. Others have instituted exemption programs enabling students to earn credit for courses that they work up without class attendance. Similarly, many high schools have established honors courses and programs of advanced standing in which gifted students are given considerable responsibility for self-learning through reading. A principle of the in-service course was that *all* high school students should look upon home readings as potentially significant educational experiences—not as skirmishes with reading before the teacher mobilizes the main lesson in the classroom.

As pointed out by Burton *(2)* in an essay that participants of the in-service course discussed, an English student needs certain attitudes, as well as certain skills, for mastering the printed page. When he reads his English assignments he should not be under the role of three possible dictators: the author, the student himself, and the teacher. The student is not so awed by the writer that he accepts as gospel everything that he reads. The teacher combats obeisance to an assigned author by expressing anticipation of different reactions from the students when they read. As the student reads, he is prompted to feel individual likes and dislikes, agreements and disagreements, strong responses and weak responses. Each student has a unique experience with his English homework.

The good reader is not his own dictator. He does not look only for familiar ideas in his reading. The teacher undermines this habit by identifying stereotyped responses and by observing that without conscious purpose a student may read for stock responses in the card index of his mind, instead of searching for the ideas in the reading itself. A student submits to another form of self-dictatorship if he feels imposed upon whenever he finds his English homework difficult. The teacher needs to guide this student into recognition of what it means to be a "student." The student controls his environment of study rather than letting it control him. His will to learn from homework is greatly influenced by where, when, and how he studies. Knowing why he should not become irritated by difficult English homework also is important. Complexity, subtlety, and richness in English readings are qualities, and not defects, of writers. As for failure after effort, it is better to have probed and lost, than never to have probed at all.

Regarding the dictatorship of the teacher, this can be forestalled by the teacher himself by certain instructional attitudes.

Instructional Attitudes Promoting an Integrated English Curriculum

The English teacher indicates to the students that his hat is not in the ring for the office of dictator. The most significant instructional attitude that he can adopt to remove the suspicion of dictatorship is use of so-called "unstructured" or "non-directed" teaching. This is instruction not based on his predetermined viewpoints. The teacher can employ unstructured teaching both for pre-reading and for post-reading lessons. The objective of an unstructured pre-reading lesson on a forthcoming assignment is to motivate the students to understand the work on their own, as opposed to telling them in advance what they should find in the work. The teacher does not prejudge a selection, as by declaring: "Read Milton's sonnet on his blindness to tell why it is a classic." He does not commit the student to a particular interpretation: "Note that Tom Sawyer has more imagination than Huck Finn, and that Tom is like Mark Twain himself;" or "What evidence can you find in the poem 'Fire and Ice' that

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by *ice* Frost means *hate?*" He does not disclose a plot element: "Suppose I came into this room wearing a black veil, how would you feel? Think of this when you read 'The Minister's Black Veil.' " He does not reveal special effects, as by such questions as "How does the title of the play, *The Doll's House,* describe Nora's life?" or "In 'The Bustle in a House' by Emily Dickinson, what is significant about the fact that the time after the death is *morning?*" He avoids telling students in advance of their reading anything that may interfere with the flashes of insight that come to them during moments of self-discovery of meaning in their reading.

By unstructured pre-reading devices the teacher multiplies the students' moments of discovering meaning in their English homework. One device is for the teacher orally to read to the class the beginning of a forthcoming assignment and then to invite the students to offer free reactions, while postponing his own. Another is to stimulate students to talk about experiences correlative to those that they will discover in their reading—meanwhile the teacher does not disclose specific ideas in the forthcoming reading. A third, and perhaps the best, method is to afford to the students certain background information about the author's life and milieu. If background matter is available in the regular English books, students can be asked to read it silently in the classroom, and the teacher can discuss it with them before he assigns particular selections of the author to read. Among the experimental activities of the in-service course, emphasis was given to teaching an author's background before rather than after the students read his works.

When students discover things for themselves as they read English homework, they come to class eager to talk about these discoveries. As during pre-reading lessons, so during post-reading lessons the teacher avoids conducting class lessons on the basis of his own predetermined viewpoints. He does not start by declaring, "Sonnet #29 shows us the low opinion that Shakespeare's society had of the acting profession. Which words of the poem tell us this?" or "The *Purloined Letter* is an example of practical psychology. Explain this in reference to the hiding of the letter." He does not ask: "Is this sonnet Shakespearian or Italian?" or "What is another good title for this short story?" Instead, the teacher permits his students to express their views first. He may ask: "Did you have any reactions to the poem?" or "Did any particular part of the short story strike you?" or "What feelings or ideas did you get out of the essay?" When students become accustomed to making free responses, the teacher can prime the pump with just a "How about it?" or "Who wants to start things off?"

Obviously both the students and the teacher have responsibility along with freedom during unstructured teaching. Students need to support their particular reactions to the literature, and the teacher must see to it that the students understand and appreciate the assigned readings. How the English teacher can establish such responsibility in the classroom is described in separate essays by Booth and White *(1)*, which were springboards of discussion in the in-service course, but which do not concern us here.

Besides unstructured teaching, two other instructional attitudes promote an integrated English curriculum offering reading instruction. These are a spirit of inquiry and a quest for points of view. Melnick *(3)* has described the value of questions as a teaching device, and she has deplored the neglect of attention to this device in current reading textbooks. On the other hand, recent professional literature on theories of teaching has been experimentally-minded regarding interrogation versus exposition as a teaching method *(5)*. The in-service program discussed the so-called "Socratic method," whereby the teacher asks questions designed to attain the goals of the lesson. This method was considered favorably only when students interact during the lesson. To take an analogy from sports, a desirable question-answer discussion is like the movements of the ball in soccer, but not in baseball. In soccer, the ball is passed among the players; in baseball, the pitcher throws to individual batters while the batters' fellow players sit on the bench. In either case every student

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can participate, but only the soccer relationship permits interplay of students.

During an unstructured lesson the discussion traffic can go off in all directions. This freewheeling is not desirable, but neither is control of the traffic by the teacher's policing. However, if the teacher encourages students to respond with forthright points of view to his questions, unorganized discussion can be prevented. The most common expression of a point of view is agreement or disagreement. Interactions of agreement and disagreement among students exercise cohesive influences on discussions. Moreover, when students agree or take issue with each other's particular points of view during a discussion, they listen carefully to their classmates and to the teacher, and they project their individual differences of opinion. These attitudes are also powerful cohesives during free discussions.

To act out a supposed episode:

Teacher (Beginning the lesson). What do you think of Sandburg's *Four Preludes?*

Mary. Sandburg certainly doesn't think much of our society.

John. I disagree. Sandburg shows that we can do something about what's wrong.

Rose. I go along with Mary. Sandburg is a pessimist.

Teacher (Re-entering the discussion to move it along). Rose, why do you call Sandburg a pessimist?

Harry (Interrupting and disregarding the question). I don't understand the first stanza. What does it have to do with the rest of the poem?

Teacher (Turning from Rose to Harry, and trying to restore the cohesion of agreement-disagreement). Harry, first let me ask you whether you agree that Sandburg thinks that something is wrong with us. Is this so?

Lessons can prove to be especially interesting when, as is inevitable, discussion traffic goes berserk or gets stalled and requires policing by the teacher. Undirected teaching for a full period probably is impossible, if not undesirable.

Reading Skills Promoting an Integrated English Curriculum

To maintain an integrated English curriculum, the in-service course experimented with the teaching of reading skills as skills of literary analysis. The skills were organized according to literary types rather than as discrete skills, and the skills were expressed in the traditional terms of literary analysis. Stated theoretically, the objective of teaching reading skills was to transcend reading behavior whose end is the ability to report on the facts and ideas of the printed page. Students were guided to read for experiencing the work: for having a sense of the author as if he were present and speaking the work to them, for having a sense of the scene as if they were actually witnessing the action of the work, for having a sense of the ideas of the work as if they were doing the thinking themselves, and for having a sense of artistic excitement as if it were they who were discovering organic unity in the different parts of the experience.

This paper will close with an example of the experimental material that was prepared by the present writer for the in-service course to illustrate the integration of reading instruction with the regular English curriculum.

Understanding a Lyric Poem

When a student must study a lyric poem to grasp its meaning, he benefits from having focal points of study. Below, sections 1-4 suggest four topics that the student can focus upon, and certain questions that he can ask himself while exploring each topic.

When a teacher needs to enter a class discussion of a poem to direct the students to its meaning, he can focus upon the four points below. He can first ask the somewhat structured ("leading") questions that appear outside of parentheses below, and these failing, he can ask the more structured questions within parentheses.

Section 5, below, "The Reader's Art," recommends basic techniques of reading that can be expected to help students to understand a lyric poem. These techniques are recommended to students as the regular approach to a poem. If, after using this approach, a student requires a more precise search for meaning in a poem, he focuses upon the points of sections 1-4 above.

1. *The Person and His Mood.* A lyric

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usually expresses the feelings of a single person. Questions: Who is the person expressing the lyric? (Is the grammatical person *I, you,* or *he?*) What is the mood of the person? (Which words express emotion?) Is there a change of person or mood? If so, what is the change? (Which words indicate a change of mood?)

2. *The Action and Its Time and Place.* The person of a lyric usually is doing something in a particular setting. Questions: What, if anything, is the person doing? (Is the person sitting, watching something, addressing something, etc?) When and where is the action happening? (Which words express the time and place?) Is there a change of action, time, or place? If so, what is it? (Where in the poem does a change of action occur?)

3. *The Central Idea.* The author of a lyric usually leads up to a central idea. Questions: What is the central idea? (Which idea is expressed at the end of the poem?) Which ideas lead up to the central idea? (What relation has the title to the central idea? What changes in thought are indicated by stanzas, a rhyme scheme, particular indentations?)

4. *The Author's Art.* A good lyric contains imagery and musical effects. Questions: What images of things appear in the lyric? (What pictures do you get from lines x-y? Do any of the words deal with sound?) What images of abstract ideas appear? (What similes and metaphors occur? What personifications of abstract ideas occur?) What symbols occur? (What combination of pictures or other images represents the author's mood and central idea?) What sound effects appear in the poem? (Do lines rhyme? Do lines have a common rhythm? Is there alliteration, assonance, consonance, onamotopoeia?) Is there irony in the poem? (Is there an idea, image, symbol, or sound effect by which the author deliberately expresses a meaning contrary to a stated meaning?)

5. *The Reader's Art.* When a good reader begins to read a lyric in the role of a critic reading for a thorough literary analysis as well as for enjoyment, he plans to read it at least twice. First he reads to get a general impression of the poem. He reads to identify the person and his mood, the action and its time and place, the central idea, and the more obvious evidence of the author's art. When he has succeeded in this general comprehension, he returns to the beginning of the poem to read it in a different manner. Now he studies the lyric as a whole consisting of parts. He notes both the particular differences among the parts and the relationships that unify them. The fulfillment of this study is perception of the artistic unity of the lyric.

As for the good reader's eye movements over the printed page, they are irregular and unpredictable. During the first reading, his eyes move along at speeds varying sporadically within a range of a brisk forward sweep to an occasional pause for close examination. During his subsequent study of the lyric, his eye motions seem fitful. At one time they are fixed intently upon a word for several seconds and then they begin slowly to rove amid the words before and after this word. Suddenly they dart here and there in the lyric, scanning related ideas at the end, at the beginning, in the middle. In contrast to such eccentric eyeball behavior, the poor reader tends to continue reading at a slow, fairly even pace. He does exhibit one eccentricity: as he reads, he often interrupts his forward motion to jump back to reread. But when he jumps back, he resumes his rhythm of slow, fairly evenly paced reading.

The good reader is a sophisticated reader. He reads to understand the poet, yet at the same time he keeps his mind open to his own experiences. He associates the ideas of the lyric with those of his previous reading, in particular of lyrics, and with those of his life experiences. He interacts with the poet.

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2. The Reading of Literature: Poetry as an Example

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AT THE OUTSET, let's clarify one or two presumptions. In my opinion the reading of literature is an ability which should be developed with students only *subsequently* in the English curriculum. In order that we make students competent to any degree at all to deal with literary selections *on their own,* we must be assured that two conditions are already present: (1) that certain basic reading skills have been assimilated by these youngsters and (2) that they have lived long enough to have accumulated a storehouse of experience to which they can relate the various literary selections they will be asked to read. It is contradictory to ask students who cannot read much of anything to read literature. Furthermore, literature can be enlightening when it sheds *new* light on something on which youngsters have already established some perspective.

Dwight Burton has suggested a highly useful three-step sequence for effective teaching of imaginative literature. To participate fully in any literary selection, a reader must first make an "imaginative entry." That is, he must be able to relate, to some degree, the experience described in the work to that which he himself has undergone. The "to some degree" is a vital factor in this first phase of understanding. The young reader does not have to have literally experienced that which occurs in the story he has read; he needs only to be able to call up experiences in the *general* area of the subject represented.

Obviously, then, works must be within the emotional range of the reader in order for him to have any chance of making such an entry. In the light of this, Burton feels that one of the teacher's important functions in promoting empathy between reader and work is to "select" for study those works which offer a legitimate chance for the student to use his experiences as a touchstone for imaginative entry.

Once an imaginative entry has been made, the reader's next concern, in Burton's eyes, is for the perception of meaning or central purpose of the work. This goal is most consistently and fully achieved by moving from particulars to universals, from the concrete "facts" of the work to the significance that they, taken as a whole, embody. Thus the process of moving toward realization of meaning is necessarily an inductive one. The finding of meaning in literature is a continuous process of predicting what is to come and then testing the validity of the prediction by relating it to what the reader finds as he progresses through the work.

The final stage of examination of literature for Burton is that of perception of artistic unity and significance. This perception, he hastens to add, is a level of realization reached by only a relatively small number of students. In other words, many may never participate aesthetically in the total impact of a writer's language. This contention, *I* hasten to add, has been well-corroborated in my own teaching experiences at the secondary level. And one of my greatest frustrations as an observer of literature instruction occurs when a teacher turns to his students at the completion of all-class reading of a given work and asks them to comment on its aesthetic impact—questions such as "How did you like this poem?," or "How did the author's style impress you?"—these without first finding out if they know what went on in the work, where, and when it happened, and to whom! Students cannot savour verbal finesse until they have first dealt with the facts of a work and their relationships, expressed and implied.

Although I find that Burton's concept of inductive literature teaching is very close to my own, I would like to take his three-step process as a point of departure and suggest some ways in which a teacher of literature, using the *forms* of literature in a purposeful sequence, may develop better understanding. Notice that Burton has laid primary emphasis on what the reader must do. The teacher is, more than anything else, a catalyst of literary understanding, interpretation, appreciation. Burton's process would be related to *any* work of literature regardless of its genre. It is my contention that if we as teachers move from one form purposefully to another with our student, it will make the application of Burton's theory a good deal easier, both for teacher and student.

My opening contention in this matter of form is that teachers of literature should consider starting with works of longer prose fiction, that is, novels. My rationale for this contention grows from the feeling that we should pick the student up where he most probably *is*. First of all, longer prose fiction tells a story, and it should be needless to reiterate that the overwhelming majority of young people enjoy stories. Whether they are superior readers, most younger students are quite accustomed to the narrative, whether it appears in printed or in oral form.

To implement most effectively my suggestion of using novels in the early stages of literature instruction, the teacher should find those novels which are conventionally written. As I define it, a conventionally written novel follows a clear chronological order in its development. The action involved in such work is mostly of an outer nature; that is, physical activity predominates, and the reader is clearly aware of this fact. There are few flashbacks; those which are used are clearly identifiable, and the sequence of events is seldom interrupted for a long period of time. Characters are also developed without obscurity. Dialogue is regularly punctuated, and the thoughts of individuals are labeled as such.

There is no need to pursue, I feel, the notion of conventionality in longer works. of prose fiction. But the novel does offer us one further advantage as an introductory form of literature. The development during the past thirty years of the well-written junior novel has provided a great *range* of materials for individualizing classroom instruction in the reading of literature. We all recognize the grim fact that not all readers at any grade level read with the same degree of proficiency. In the study of literature, the addition of the junior novel affords the teacher a valuable implement. Moreover, these works most often portray a protagonist in *adolescence,* moving through situations very close to the literal experience of younger or less mature readers. This facet of the junior novel makes imaginative entry possible for a large number of students. It also allows the teacher to choose well-written but easy-to-read selections for students who have trouble in just plain reading. He can use junior novels as a springboard for exploration of more complex works on more mature topics.

Flexibility is something for which we of the teaching gentry all crave. Equipped with junior novels, long but conventionally written novels on more adult topics (the works of Kipling, London, Twain, and countless others, can represent this type), and the kind of longer fictional works that we as college students manfully ploughed through, the teacher can work with students who are at several stages of development.

The short story offers a vehicle with which we can make an excellent transition in moving students from "easier" to more difficult literary forms. (Although, at this point I should like to interject that the term "easy" is a very slippery one when applied to the *reading* of literature—readability formulas don't tell us much of anything about the relative conceptual difficulty of most imaginative works.) While the short story is obviously still *fiction*, exemplary works often contain some special problems of which students will be largely unaware unless they are led to recognize and deal with them. The problem of reading the short story is not aided by the fact that there is considerably less adolescent fiction to be found in this abbreviated form. While there are undeniably some worthwhile collections of junior short stories available today, the great majority of shorter fictional works studied at the secondary level and widely anthologized for that purpose are quite adult and sophisticated. Thus the teacher will frequently find himself faced with the inescapable responsibility of dealing with short fictional works which present one or more significant structural difficulties.

Opening paragraphs in most short stories are crucial to the understanding of the work. With *much* less room to maneuver than his novelist counterpart, the writer of the short story must invest great significance in some relatively sparse and often trivial seeming detail. The student who is not on the lookout for these opening clues will almost invariably develop a confused or distorted idea of the direction in which the work is moving.

Time sequences are juggled about with abandon in modern short stories. Since the writer is typically presenting only a slice of life, he must often "play about with his clock" as E. M. Forster would say, in order to place in sharpest focus those details he wishes to emphasize. The result is often a series of abrupt transitions in scene, unexpected flashbacks, and puzzlingly underdeveloped situations. The student who is used to reading conventionally developed, longer fictional works may be jarred by these sharp turns and bumps in the road.

Further complications exist in short stories, particularly those written within the last fifty years. Freudian influences have led many writers to concern themselves increasingly with the exploitation of the inner nature of man and to devote a good deal of attention to the disturbed person's outlook on life. The result has been a great deal of experimentation with such stylistic devices as stream of consciousness, interior monologue, etc. Students who cannot follow such nuances will obviously have trouble grasping the contribution which certain characters have made to the story as a whole. When writers add conscious ambiguity to the statements, reflections, etc., of their characters, the untrained reader becomes further confused.

Anti-climactic endings add to the difficulty in interpreting significance in short fiction. The student who has read longer, conventionally written prose works becomes accustomed to the piling up of a welter of evidence leading to a decisive climax. He learns to anticipate such inexorably moving plots and thus may be irritated and disconcerted by the ending which offers no resolution or triumphal confrontation. Hemingway's *Killers* has often had this effect on my high school students. They are vexed by the utter futility evinced by the two main characters in the closing lines of the story.

In the light of all of these structural irregularities, the student who would become a careful and ultimately *satisfied* reader of well written short fiction must come to two major realizations. First, he must recognize that most short stories feature *compression* of idea. Much is said in a few words. Much is left for the reader to infer and relate to his own literal experience. A few lines in a short story can evolve a good deal of frequently wide ranging reaction, and ambiguity is always possible in interpretation. It is in the perception by the student of the significance of this compression of *idea and impression* that the reading of the short story can have value as a transitional activity.

Furthermore, because of compression, the great necessity for slow reading of this form must become gradually more evident to the student. He must move away from the casual inspection, the skimming which has probably characterized his reading of longer, conventionally structured novels. He must make meticulous note of *each* part, regardless of how seemingly insignificant, as it relates to the whole. When the impact of compressed meaning is fully sensed by the

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student of literature and when slow, careful reflective reading becomes part of his approach, he may then be ready to joust with poetry, the most difficult literary form for him to read.

For several reasons, poetry presents the greatest obstacle to the teacher who would lead his students to the effective reading of literature. One immediate reason is that poetry, unlike prose fiction or drama, does not necessarily tell a story. Much of the poetry which young people must read even as early as junior high school, develops an abstract idea or establishes a proposition concerning human experience. Some poetry is not even idea-centered; it merely creates an aesthetic impression. Consider the effect of Ezra Pound's famous imagistic work "In a Station of the Metro:"

"The apparition of these faces in the crowd;
Petals on a wet, black bough."

The student who is looking for a story in this work is certainly doomed to disappointment. Because the *ways* of so many poems are simply not narrative ones, readers who are unprepared for this fact may well be troubled by a search which goes unrewarded. If you recall, Burton has reminded us that perception of aesthetic impact occurs in only a small minority of readers. In the poem just quoted there isn't really much else to be gained.

A further complication, in the study of this form, is that there is not much range in its difficulty levels. There is little or no *transitional* poetry. While the junior novel which I described a few moments ago has flourished during the past thirty years, the junior poem is still looking for a champion. Most poetry with which students must deal is based on adult situations, represents abstract themes, and is highly complex of structure when compared to the conventionally written novel. Since there is no appreciable fund of adolescent poetry to augment such instruction, the teacher must come to terms, and realistically so, with the reading problems which the medium presents.

Probably the greatest difficulty to be found in the reading of poetry lies in the pronounced irregularity of its structure. By "irregularity" I mean that the form of the work is so vastly different from that which students are accustomed to reading that it continues to frustrate a large number of them. It has been my belief for many years, incidentally, that teenage boys do not really reject poetry because it is "fairy stuff" or "fruity;" this opinion, I feel, has become an institutionalized rationalization. The major reason boys retreat from poetry is that poetry is difficult to read, and so many secondary-level boys are inefficient readers. To go further, much of the reason that poetry has failed to interest and relate to young readers in general is that teachers have often emphasized the wrong elements, have compulsively continued to putter about among the metrical ornaments of verse while neglecting to sense and deal with the real reading problems which the form presents.

Of the legion reading difficulties inherent in the poetic form, I shall identify and illustrate only a few. What I would ask is that, as I catalog these difficulties, you continue to remember they are almost invariably occurring simultaneously in the work being studied. In other words, several aspects of the reading of a poem are troubling a student *at the same time.*

One obvious structural irregularity is that, in order to create impressions through rhythmical patterns, the appearance of lines of poetry differs sharply from those of prose fiction. In response to the charge that much of his poetry was difficult, the American poet, E. A. Robinson was once quoted as saying, "If they would only read my sentences!". Of course what Robinson has failed to mention was that many of the conventional characteristics of prose sentence structure are missing in poetry. Each poetic line is capitalized. Punctuation is irregular. Thoughts are often interrupted or ended *in medias res.* Lines are ended to accommodate rhyme rather than necessarily to facilitate syntactic flow. In fact, one of a young reader's major confusions in early bouts with poetry may stem from his wish to stay with the lilt of the poem rather than to pursue it primarily for *meaning*. Allow me to illustrate this by reading a few lines from a poem with which I know you are all familiar.

That's my last Duchess painted on the wall,
Looking as if she were alive. I call
That piece a wonder, Now: Fra Pandolf's hands
Worked busily a day, and there she stands.
Will't please you sit and look at her? I said
"Fra Pandolf" by design, for never read
Strangers like you that pictured countenance,
The depth and passion of its earnest glance,
But to myself they turned (since none puts by
The curtain I have drawn for you, but I)
And seemed as they would ask me, if they durst,
How such a glance came there; so, not the first
Are you to turn and ask thus.

Now notice what happens when I take a slightly different tack in my reading:

(Read above passage again.)

When metrical analysis and identification of rhyme scheme become issues of paramount importance in the teaching of poetry to young people, this kind of distorted reading can easily result.

Word order in sentence structure is a vital factor in the transmission of meaning in the English language. The linguists tell us that somewhere between 75-80 per cent of the sentences produced in our language follow the subject-verb-object pattern. Young readers are most comfortable reading sentences written in this pattern. Therefore, the inversion of word order, the abrupt inclusion of single word and/or phrase modifiers, and other such machinations will create reading problems for the uninitiated. Notice in this next poem by Walt Whitman the time it takes the poet to get to the subject of his discourse and the distance he puts between his subject and his verb.

Out of the cradle endlessly rocking,
Out of the mocking-bird's throat, the musical shuttle,
Out of the Ninth-month midnight,
Over the sterile sands and the fields beyond, where the child leaving his bed wander'd alone, bareheaded, barefoot,
Down from the shower'd halo,
Up from the mystic play of shadow twining and twisting as if they were alive,
Out from the patches of briers and blackberries,
From the memories of the bird that chanted to me,
From your memories sad brother, from the fitful risings and fallings I heard,
From under that yellow half-moon late-risen and swollen as if with tears,
From those beginning notes of yearning and love there in the mist,
From the thousand responses of my heart never to cease,
From the myriad thence-arous'd words,
From the word stronger and more delicious than any,
From such as now they start the scene revisiting,
As a flock, twittering, rising, or overhead passing,
Borne hither, ere all eludes me, hurriedly,
A man, yet by these tears a little boy again,
Throwing myself on the sand, confronting the waves,
I, chanter of pains and joys, uniter of here and hereafter,
Taking all hints to use them, but swiftly leaping beyond them,
A reminiscence sing.

If we were to use a readability index which included the prepositional phrase factor to judge the level of difficulty of this poem, it would probably turn out to be pretty high.

As in the work I have just read, sentences in poetry are quite frequently of outrageous length. From early reading and writing experiences, we stress with our students the need for control of sentence length. Reasonable sentence length is an important feature of basic reading materials. Most conventionally written prose fiction (I shall exclude the works of such people as William Faulkner and Henry James from this category) is exemplary of attention to control of length of syntactic expression. Not so in poetry. Here is the opening sentence, always a crucial one, from "Paradise Lost" which we all labored with back in the halcyon days of our youth.

> *Of Man's first disobedience, and the fruit*
> *Of that forbidden tree whose mortal taste*
> *Brought death into the World, and all our woe,*
> *With loss of Eden, till one greater Man*
> *Restore us, and regain the blissful seat,*
> *Sing, Heavenly Muse, that, on the secret top*
> *Of Oreb, or of Sinai, didst inspire*
> *That shepherd who first taught the chosen seed*
> *In the beginning how the heavens and earth*
> *Rose out of Chaos; or, if Sion hill*
> *Delight thee more, and Silod's brook that flowed*
> *Fast by the oracle of God, I thence*
> *Invoke they aid to my adventurous song,*
> *That with no middle flight intends to soar*
> *Above the Aonian mount, while it pursues*
> *Things unattempted yet in prose or rime.*

Certainly there are other problems here as well (I ask you once again to remember that all the problems I mention are present simultaneously), but it must be conceded that it takes a trained and aware reader to sustain understanding of the main idea in the sentence I have just read.

Poets also utilize unusual words, dialect, and historical allusions throughout much of their work. The ease of understanding of much verse is further reduced by expressions which appear in crucial places and are of central importance to the poet's purpose. In the third stanza of "Sailing to Byzantium," William Butler Yeats says

> *"O sages standing in God's holy fire*
> *As in the gold mosaic of a wall*
> *Come from the fire,* pern in a gyre
> (accent mine)

If you don't know ancient Celtic you probably won't understand what the critics tell us is a most important phrase not only in this work but to all of Yeats' poetic thought. Dialect can be particularly troublesome because it seldom occurs here and there but usually permeates the entire selection. In case you have forgotten, here is a slice of a poem by Robert Burns.

> *When chapman billies leave the street,*
> *And drouthy neibors neibors meet;*
> *As market days are wearing late,*
> *And folk begin to tak the gate,*
> *While we sit bousing at the nappy,*
> *An' getting fou and unco happy,*
> *We think na on the lang Scots miles,*
> *The mosses, waters, slaps and stiles,*
> *That lie between us and our hame,*
> *Where sits out sulky, sullen dame,*
> *Gathering her brows like gathering storm,*
> *Nursing her wrath to keep it warm.*

Since the poem continues like this for several pages, and I have already demonstrated quite dramatically my ineptness with this stuff, I shall not proceed. It is important to remember, however, that in the study of English literature, dialect abounds in poetry written at least through the 17th century. *And this constitutes the first several months of study in an anthology-oriented senior high school course.* To deal effectively with the Burns poem, you must be able to handle the printed representation of late 18th century Scottish dialect.

Continual use of historical and mythological allusions is characteristic of renowned poets from all eras and of all nationalities. When such allusions are unclear to the student, he often fails to perceive both the idea that the poet is trying to communicate and the force with which it is conveyed. Here are the opening stanzas of Matthew Arnold's "Dover Beach."

> *The sea is calm tonight,*
> *The tide is full, the moon lies fair*
> *Upon the straits;—on the French coast the light*
> *Gleams and is gone; the cliffs of England stand,*
> *Glimmering and vast, out in the*

tranquil bay.
Come to the window, sweet is the night-air!
Only, from the long line of spray
Where the sea meets the moon-blanched land,
Listen! you hear the grating roar
Of pebbles which the waves draw back, and fling,
At their return, up the high strand,
Begin and cease, and then again begin,
With tremulous cadence slow, and bring
The eternal note of sadness in.
Sophocles long ago
Heard it on the Aegean, and it brought
Into his mind the turbid ebb and flow
Of human misery; we
Find also in the sound a thought,
Hearing it by this distant northern sea.

Notice that the first stanza is straight, relatively clear description. Slow careful reading should be enough to comprehend both the situation and to infer the *mood*. Arnold, however, sees fit, at the beginning of the stanza immediately following, to allude to a major tragedian from classical antiquity. Thus, if the student doesn't know who Sophocles was and, more important, what his religious beliefs were, that vitally important allusion will confuse rather than clarify. And don't forget, it happens that there is only one such allusion in the poem I just read from. Where would we be in treating "The Waste Land" if we didn't know all truth about Eastern and Western culture through the ages?

Logically, we can next turn to the whole matter of figurative language in poetry which has always presented great obstacles to understanding for all but the most sophisticated of readers. Certainly one of the main problems in reading this form is that poets juxtapose unusual objects and ideas with great frequency. Eliot's comparing of an evening sky with an etherized patient in "The Love Song of J. Alfred Prufrock" is probably by now one of the truly classic examples of this. Whenever meaning is to be conveyed by allusion, a potential problem in communication exists. In setting up his association, the writer hopes that by comparing something less familiar (his main object or idea) with something *more* familiar to the reader, that the former will then become more easily perceived. The real problem exists in the fact that the reader (and particularly the *young* reader) may not be as familiar with the part of the allusion which the writer hoped him to be. Thus, if the reader cannot conjure up a lucid and complete image of an etherized patient, then Eliot's comparison is done for in this instance, and the poet has confused where he hoped to clarify.

Much can be done, I would contend, in the analytical teaching of figurative language to help less mature readers with problems in understanding such as I have just described. If we would teach *metaphor* for what it is, a basic and widespread means of conveying information and ideas, then our students would probably have a better chance to work with it successfully when it occurs in poetry. As S. I. Hayakawa has been saying for years, metaphor is a fundamental component of our language. In everyday speech we juxtapose the unusual for clarification, emphasis, variety, humor. We say, "I'm dying to meet him," or "This box weighs a ton," or "They're in another world." Too much time, however, is spent by teachers in identifying terms such as simile, metaphor, and personification purely as ornaments of poetry. Students memorize definitions for these terms, then sleuth about for them in the works they read. If these same youngsters were shown the omnipresence of metaphor in *their* language and the relationship of the figurative which occurs in everyday discourse to that found in the poetic work, they would probably understand a greater number of the allusions in selections they are assigned to read.

One thing is sure; we must teach the significant place which metaphor occupies in the search for meaning in poetry. There is virtually no poetic language which is totally devoid of the figurative. It is a chief device by which a poet compresses meaning as he crowds a good deal of thought provoking allusion into a superficially simple figure.

As time closes in and coughs when I would expound, I wish to mention one final feature, found in much verse, that if overlooked by the reader will most certainly weaken the impact of the work on him. Most writers of poetry quite often employ single words and patterns of words for the purpose of evoking emotional reaction largely through tonal effects of these words and patterns. Here is a short poem, "Dead Boy," by John Crowe Ransom in which, I believe, we have an example of such a device.

The little cousin is dead, by foul subtraction,
A green bough from Virginia's aged tree,
And none of the county kin like the transaction
Nor some of the world of outer dark, like me.
A boy not beautiful, nor good, nor clever,
A black cloud full of storms too hot for keeping,
A sword beneath his mother's heart—yet never
Woman bewept her babe as this is weeping.
A pig with a pasty face, so I had said.
Squealing for cookies, kinned by pure pretense
With a noble house. But the little man quite dead,
I can see the forebears' antique lineaments.
The elder men have strode by the box of death
To the wide flag porch, and muttering low send round
The bruit of the day. O friendly waste of breath!
Their hearts are hurt with a deep dynastic wound.
He was pale and little, the foolish neighbors say;
The first-fruits, saith the Preacher, the Lord hath taken;
But this was the old tree's late branch wrenched away,
Grieving the sapless limbs, the shorn and shaken.

If the reader does not respond to the grating, rasping sound made by "old tree's late branch wrenched away" in the next to last line of the final stanza and the quiet closing provided by the sibilants "s" and "sh" in the final line, then, in my opinion, he has missed something. But, it must be remembered that this kind of appreciative reaction may not come to large numbers of students. As teachers, we may help our students through an inductive approach to realize the significance of such juxtaposition for themselves, but we cannot and should not teach them by edict. It goes without saying that effective oral reading by the teacher could be a great influence in areas of poetic consideration such as this.

During this discussion I have tried to point out the pitfalls apparent in the teaching of reading of literature in general and of poetry in particular. I hope that by some of my remarks, I have indicated means of dealing with these difficulties. These things we know: that poetry is "hard" in part, at least, because it has a narrow range of difficulty; *i.e.*, most of it is tough to comprehend; further, that meaning in poetry is greatly compressed, thus calling for slow reading, frequent rereading, and much associative activity; also, that poetry is most irregular in structure, that it *looks* different from conventionally printed matter thereby forcing the reader frequently to reconstruct it mentally into "ordinary" dress in order to gain its meaning. And that, finally, the several aspects of difficulty in poetry are usually functioning at the same time, thus adding to the complexity of our teaching task. Maybe, by applying Burton's three-step process of induction, we can help puzzled and discontent students with heretofore baffling works. Maybe by moving systematically from the more conventional to increasingly irregular literary structures, we can assist the student in making the most of his *strengths* in reading. Maybe by using both of these plus a little individual attention, we can lead students to the point where they will say, "Hey, I like this one," and really mean it.

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3. Teaching Reading and Physics Simultaneously

HAROLD L. HERBER

WHO WOULD ever think that these students could have a reading problem: above average ability; capable of high scores on college boards; enrolled in honors courses. *Prima facie* evidence would indicate that they have good control over basic reading skills. But the consternation they and their teachers experience belies the evidence.

It is within the broad framework of reading—reading as a thinking process—that these students need instruction. Rather than reading actively at maximum efficiency, they often read passively, inefficiently, and with wasted motion. Years of training have developed their efficiency in identifying, recording, memorizing, and repeating facts. Unfortunately, however, few of these students have had training in formulating and applying concepts, because most teachers wrongly assume the students already possess this skill. This lack of training handicaps the students' performance in advanced courses.

The Project English Demonstration Center at DeWitt, New York has been organized to show that reading instruction can be part of the course content in all subject areas, providing for students at all ability, achievement, and grade levels.

This paper reports the results of such instruction given to bright students in an advanced (PSSC) physics course.

The Problem

Students learn physics inductively in the new curriculum. They conduct experiments and record their observations; observe teacher-conducted demonstrations related to the laboratory experiments; refine their generalizations; finally read the text, which expands the principles and explains the observed phenomena.

Students at the Center experienced difficulty in developing and handling the concepts in the text. Asked to identify, list, and memorize the facts, they had no trouble. However, asked to formulate the concepts, showing their interrelationships, applications, and implications, these students performed superficially.

The problem was to design materials which would guide the students in developing essential concepts as they read the text, maintaining a proper balance between skills and content.

The Procedure

A study guide was constructed to accompany the reading of the chapter on "Wave Mechanics." It assisted the students in formulating and relating the concepts. It did not require them to memorize facts or to list the concepts. It required them to use the concepts in solving problems posed in the guide. The students had to think abstractly, developing concept relationships not actually stated in the text.

Two physics teachers had expressed a desire to participate in the experiment. One taught the experimental class; the other taught the control. There were no significant differences between the classes either in ability or in reading achievement.

A standardized test measuring understanding of the content was given to both classes at the end of the unit. The teacher of the control group subsequently repeated the textbook phase of the unit so he could observe the effect of the procedures.

The Findings

The teachers reported that students formulated the concepts and, encountering their fundamental meanings, handled them in an abstract manner not previously experienced. The teachers reported a great deal of enthusiasm generated by the grouping process. Students had an opportunity to present and exchange their ideas and were actively engaged in "handling" the concepts.

The teachers concluded that this procedure—method and materials—was a time saver. They needed to devote much less time to full-class instruction because most concepts were developed and reinforced in the group activity.

The control-group teacher felt that when his students used the study guides and participated in the group discussions, they developed an understanding of the concepts they had previously missed.

A "t" test of significance showed that the experimental group scored significantly higher on the standardized test (at the .05 level).

Summary and Conclusions

Though this study had limitations due to size of sample and lack of pre-test on content, several valid conclusions can be drawn:

1. The students were enthusiastic about the materials and the learning process, becoming—consistent with the inductive method—active participants in learning rather than passive observers.
2. The materials and process significantly improved students' learning and greatly facilitated the teaching of the course.
3. Above average students in physics classes do benefit from instruction in reading when it is given simultaneously with subject content by regular classroom teachers.

There is more to reading than identifying and memorizing facts. Concepts must be developed and applied. When guidance is given, students can develop and apply them.

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C. SECONDARY LEVEL

1. Meeting Reading Demands of the Content Subjects

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THE PHRASE "READING in the content area" tends to connote the isolation of the reading act into separate pigeon holes or categories. I should like to do away with this phrase and have you consider the act of reading in the content area as functional reading, *i.e.*, reading related to work-to-be-accomplished and to work-energy put into it. Functional reading is reading-to-learn or to earn (if you will), as contrasted with pleasure reading which might indicate more of a satisfaction of human yearning.

It seems to me that we cannot divide types of reading into categories because "types" of reading must necessarily overlap and integrate. The mature, effective reader has developed automatic shift control of flexibility and is able to bring to smooth availability all of his skills in every reading task.

The construct of reading is in no sense simple, hence it would seem indicative to discuss the skills often met in the fields of natural sciences, mathematics, and technical materials in the social sciences, and in literature.

A high school student is fortunate if every one of his teachers is willing to be a reading teacher in his field of specialization. This works both ways, for the teacher, too, is fortunate if his students are aiming to become mature thinkers and readers through the intelligent accomplishment of the developmental reading tasks in that specialized subject area. Proficiency in reading skills needed in a particular subject area will be generally useful in reading outside that field, and will prove particularly so in certain aspects of other content-reading materials.

The approach to reading in the fields of the natural sciences and mathematics, as in technical articles and in poetry, is that of slower-than-average, analytical, precise literal reading. In much of this type of material there are important, individual, relational words, technical or specialized vocabulary, abstract concepts, concentrated thought regarding principles, generalizations, and conclusions. In these fields, reading will involve following directions, applying laws and principles, "study-type" reading of charts, diagrams, and formulas, and "word-weighing" reading, because each *word* is significant. Technical words and familiar words with specialized meanings must be understood and experienced rather than memorized.

Chapter reading can be "softened up" by the *SQ3R* approach. Questions raised in problem-solving content areas are of an interpretive nature: What is known (or given)? What is to be found? What steps need to be taken by reading the problem without emphasizing the numbers? The problem must be read for as perfect an understanding as possible; it must, in fact, not only be read slowly and re-read, but diagrammed or summarized as well. Reading to solve problems in mathematics calls for a high degree of creative reading. In reading mathematics, skills attained, as well as concepts, are cumulative; they need to be developed in a structured or building-block type sequence more than those skills of some other subjects.

Cause-and-effect relationships are important in both science and social studies reading. It is necessary, therefore, to weigh two sets of factors to see if there is a true relationship, or whether one is merely expected because of the reader's preconceived ideas or emotional bias. Likewise, it is necessary to determine whether the relationship is merely one of time coincidence or actually one of cause. An example at this stage may clear up this last point: An old backwoodsman visited a large department store for the first time. He watched an elevator open, and in stepped an old, hobbling lady. The doors closed, and in a few short moments, they opened again and out stepped a pert, charming, young girl. The old man scratched his head and commented: "I should have brought my Rosie." Obviously, this was mixing time sequence with a cause-effect relationship.

Differences of reading skills required in the various types of materials lie not so much in the materials themselves as in the type of thinking involved. Distinctive skills necessary in reading the social sciences include skills in wide, rapid reading, skills in overviewing and previewing in order to sense the main ideas and the overall organizational pattern of extensive material, as well as the tone and intent of the author. Finally, the highest levels of those distinctive skills are those of critical evaluation and of relating what is read to an ever-increasing broad background of cultural and vicarious reading.

Social studies reading ought to be extensive. It is important therefore, to demand meaning of the whole selection, chapter, or book by utilizing the organizational structure of the book, the typographical and graphic aids to emphasis as utilized in the *SQ3R* method of "tenderizing." These organizational skills also include awareness of such methods as the author uses to communicate his ideas to the reader: sequence of facts, of time, of space, and of causal relationships; chronological order and time concepts; topical arrangements and emphasis; how much time (or space) the author devotes to a topic; enumeration, analogy, contrast, comparison.

In order to broaden his background and have referents for interpretation, the mature social studies reader needs the vast array of locational skills to find valid and pertinent information through the effective use of the textbook, source materials, and the library. It is vital for the student to have knowledge and ability in the use of the card catalogue, guides (such as the *Reader's Guide,* or *Guide to Periodic Literature*) prime sources and documentary materials, bibliographies, biographical sketches, newspapers — especially editorials, charts and visual aids—and finally a working knowledge of the student's own textbook: title page, significance of title, copyright date, preface (for the author's stated purpose) glossary or dictionary of words and concepts, introductions and summaries, end-of-chapter questions and study ideas, and the indices.

Granted, most social studies reading is non-fiction. It is nevertheless important for the student to recognize the author's style or his personal way of expressing his thoughts. Not only what the author says, but how he says it, carries meaning, expresses his viewpoint, and influences interpretation. Is the style official or formal and impersonal as in legal abstracts and deeds; rhetorical or elaborately figurative with high emotional appeal; balanced and scholarly; informal as in simple stories and in letters; or colloquial as in daily speech? Is the form strictly narration, exposition, description, argumentation, or a combination of these? Each style or form will tend to evoke different reactions from the reader.

The social studies field involves issues, values, interpretation, and conclusions. A mature reader, therefore, realizes that the author is human, is as fallible in print as in oral speech. He will not consider print sacred. The thoughtful critic will challenge the author with questions like these: What are you saying? What is your authority? What are the facts? Is your information correct? Do your facts warrant conclusions or implications? Is your evidence weighted in favor of one viewpoint or is it colored with emotionally toned words? A reader must question and challenge the author. To read critically is to read intelligently. The mature reader knows what the author has to say and then agrees or disagrees with him in the light of what he himself has known and has believed. He is critical of himself, of his own knowledge, and especially of his own biases and prejudices.

A good reader of social studies can find application of these skills in all areas of adult reading and adult thinking. Advertisements and commercials are points in question in the light of skills discussed earlier. Such skills are pertinent to all areas of critical reading including those used in literature.

Literature opens the whole field of artistic expression that is designed to communicate truth, usually of human life, and of reality wrapped in beauty—beauty of image or symbol; beauty of rhythm, coherence, or rhyme; beauty of economy of language as found in much poetry and in short stories; or in the beautiful vividness of description—to appeal to the reader through many aspects of his total personality. Critically he reaches for the truth, the theme or the message, while he creatively responds with his sense memory through visualization, with his imagination with which he builds the flesh and blood and circumstances of character, plot, and setting. The reader responds with all of his life experience, and strains for the fullness of life even vicariously experienced.

Literature furnishes some of the labyrinthian byways in man's quest for self in the light of the ultimate. It affords depths of insight into human relationships that help the reader understand himself and others a little better.

Artistic beauty and values related to the enrichment of human life are two culminating characteristics of true literature. Special use of words, their arrangement, sound effects, apt phrases, vivid images, mood and tone, and shades and precision of meaning are some of the elements that embody beauty of expression together with universal truth as a bonus. The elements concentrated in poetry are the ones that add to the caliber of any work of literary art. Beauty of expression, however, is not exclusive to fiction or to literary works; it is what makes any writing effective.

Emphasis of particular aspects of the concept of reading, the orientation or purpose of the author, or the nature of the reading material may change the approach to reading in the various content subjects in high school. Sometimes this approach, which may vary even with the same material read at different times, is a matter of the types of questions missed, the depth of reading comprehension, or the depth of reading interpretation.

Summary

The intent of this paper is to make teachers of content fields aware of the concept that adequate reading skills are vital to the high school student's success in any and all of the multiple disciplines for which he will be held responsible.

We have tried to show, within the limitations of time and space, that there is a commonality of reading skills amid the vast gamut of subject-matter knowledge and learning we expect of our high school students. By doing away with the connotative fallout of the phrase "reading in the content area" and emphasizing the concept of "functional reading" (with its concomitant overlapping of skills) we have attempted to change the notion that the reading act can be packaged, parcelled, or isolated into separate categories.

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2. Rate of Comprehension in the Content Subjects

John A. Vinagro

"Rate of Comprehension" has been selected to describe speed of reading, when learning is the primary goal, rather than relaxation, enjoyment, information, and emotional release." Content Subjects" include all secondary school classes as opposed to the conventional definition whereby subjects in which the acquisition of information or knowledge as in history, geography, science and civics are generally the only ones included.[1] Flexibility is one reading skill that all secondary school teachers may stress to improve rate of comprehension in the ontent subjects.

Need

Reading all materials in the same manner wastes energy and poses the possibility of poorly accomplishing or never finishing the task. Most teachers assume that pupils recognize this. Consequently, they feel no need to teach flexibility. Research, however, shows that many readers tend to develop one speed of reading and that they proceed to read everything at that one speed.[2] Furthermore, this inflexibility is acquired early, around the third or fourth grade. Going even further, they find it hard to change when they are told to do so, as research has shown that direction to students to alter manner of reading does not produce desired rate changes.[3] Content subject teachers need to emphasize flexibility.

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[1] Carter V. Good (Editor), *Dictionary of Education*, McGraw-Hill Book Co. Inc., New York, 1959, p. 534.

Problems

One-speed reading and an acute need to reread develop at a crucial time. Somewhere about the fourth grade, reading material becomes highly specialized in subject content.[4] Effective comprehension in the higher grades necessitates application of study techniques requiring adjustments previously considered bad habits. Regression which detracted from enjoyment now contributes to reinforcement. In addition to rereading, spending more time on the important and less on the unimportant through rate variation becomes increasingly helpful.

Advantages

Studies indicate that variation in reading speed affects comprehension. By distinguishing between situations where speed tends to facilitate comprehension as opposed to those occasions where slowness tends to correlate highly with understanding, teachers may improve rate of comprehension in the content subjects. Trends in the research suggest that speed tends to be helpful on narrative[5] and easy reading materials,[6] while higher comprehension is usually associated with slower reading in mathematical material.[7] The fact that unanimous agreement is lacking[8, 9] serves to emphasize the importance of individual differences and provide occasion to mention when speed is useful on all types of material. Speed can be utilized to aid comprehension in certain aspects and types of reading in all school subjects. Previewing an assignment and acquiring additional facts through collateral reading are supplementary procedures.

Principles

Each academic area involves special vocabulary and comprehension skills, and no one is more familiar with these abilities than teachers who have specialized in the subject.[10] A large part of secondary reading instruction should be provided by content subject teachers. This teaching should reflect at least three principles gleaned from trends in reading research. First, speed should not be emphasized in specific materials of certain subjects nor in low ability classes. At average and lower intelligence levels, slower readers tend to be more efficient.[11] Secondly, reading all materials in a course at one speed should be discouraged. Introducing varied materials to be read for different purposes is one procedure to prevent one-speed reading. Other techniques are skimming for a single idea, noting relationships between main points, and using reading as a springboard for thinking and creative writing.[12] Finally, an awareness of certain conditions which prohibit work in speed should be developed. Retardation in areas of word recognition, vocabulary, and comprehension precludes speed development.[13]

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[2] Arthur I. Gates. *Reading Abilities Involved in the Content Subjects*, The Macmillan Co., p. 5 (a paper presented by A. Gates to the New England Reading Association in Poland Spring, Maine, Oct. 2, 1952).

[3] H. Nason and A. McDonald, *Reading Flexibility*, Reading Newsletter, January 31, 1964, Educational Development Laboratories, Huntington, New York, p. 2.

[4] Shelly Umans, *New Trends in Reading Instruction*, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, 1963, p. 5.

[5] Bernice E. Leary. *Reading in the High School and College*, Chapter VIII—"Meeting Specific Reading Problems in the Content Fields," The Forty-Seventh Yearbook, Part II, National Society for the Study of Education. The University of Chicago Press Company, Chicago, 1948, p. 139.

[6] George Spache. *Toward Better Reading.* Garrard Publishing Company, Champaign, Illinois, 1962, p. 248.

[7] Ruth Strang and others. *The Improvement of Reading.* McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1961, pp. 162-163.

[8] Vernon E. Troxel. "The Effects of Purpose on the Reading of Expository Math Materials in Grade 8," *Journal of Educational Research*, Feb. 1962, Volume 55, Number V, p. 226.

[9] Walter Pauk. "On Scholarship Advice to High School Students," *The Reading Teacher*, 17 (November 1963), International Reading Association, pp. 73-78.

[10] *Developmental Reading Program Through Social Studies*, Vol. 1 Revised—a tentative guide for teachers, grade 7, New York State, Sewanhaka Central High School, District No. 2, Nassau County, New York, p. 2.

[11] Albert J. Harris. *How to Increase Reading Ability.* Chicago: David McKay Company, Inc., 1961, pp. 504-505.

[12] Ruth Strang. *The Underachiever in Reading.* "Prevention and Correction of Underachievement," Supplementary Educational Monographs, The University of Chicago Press, Number 92, December 1962, p. 81.

[13] Helen K. Smith. *The Underachiever in Reading.* "Corrective and Remedial Instruction," Supplementary Educational Monographs, The University of Chicago Press, Number 92, December 1962, pp. 47-48.

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3. The Basic Aim of the Literature Program

J. Louis Cooper

It has been said that there are three types of illiterates: (1) those who can't read; (2) those who can read but do not; and (3) those who can and do read, but who never read anything significant. While we have usually been justifiably concerned about the first of these types of illiteracy, it appears likely that in many instances we have been most ineffective in serving the latter two.

All too often we have been disposed to consider the task of teaching children how to read as the sole function of the reading program. No one can deny that before a person can develop reading interests and tastes he must first master the basic mechanics of the process. However, many children have been subjected to reading programs which undoubtedly have taught them to read with some degree of skill, but which have left them with the attitude of the earnest young pupil who remarked, "Now that I've learned to read, do I have to?"

One of our major tasks as teachers of reading, or literature, is to promote reading interests, attitudes, tastes, and a love for reading; in short, to develop lifetime reading habits. If a literature program does not contribute to this end, it is doubtful that it serves any very useful purpose. It is apparent, however, that many such programs, particularly some at the secondary school and college levels contribute little to this major objective. In some instances the objective may be lost sight of; in others, the means that are used to promote it may fall short of their mark.

In teaching literature selections, teachers often are so concerned with the author's choice of words and with their own careful analysis of plot and character that their students are not permitted to read with open ears to hear what revelation the writer may have to make. While some formal analysis of reading selections may be desirable, it is entirely possible that on occasion we may dissect selections to such an extent that our students may tend to reject them. It is erroneous to assume that interpretation and appreciation are necessarily furthered by such a process.

In many literature courses the materials which children must read in order to satisfy the requirements for the course are so rigidly prescribed that little or no deviation from the designated list is permitted. In such cases, it is assumed that these selections are "musts" and that no student should leave high school without in some fashion having been exposed to them. In this connection, you may recall that when John Dewey, Charles Beard, and Edward Weeks were asked some years ago for the titles of the twenty-five books which each considered of greatest social significance and personal profit, there were only three titles common to the three lists. So it is with our literature programs. I do not know the one hundred books which all high school students should read because I do not believe in rigid absolutes, but I do know of hundreds of books which hundreds of children and youth should read. The position held here is that there should be ample opportunity for individuals to build their reading interests in the light of their unique personalities, and that interests and tastes are not necessarily furthered by the intensive study of a limited number of selections by all students. This is not to say that nothing should be prescribed; it is quite likely that at times certain books will be useful to the whole group and should be read by all or a large part of the group. On the other hand, it is also possible that in some instances the prescription may be too rigid.

The rigid prescription of reading matter brings to mind the story of the nightingale. There was once an Emperor of Japan who sent to the Emperor of China a mechanical nightingale which could be wound up with a key. As the members of the court listened to its singing, everyone was delighted with this mechanical bird made of jewels and whirring wheels. The music master, in praising the mechanical bird, insisted that it was much better than the real nightingale, not only as regarded the outside, with all the jewels, but on the inside, too. "Because," he said, "you see, in the real nightingale you never know what you will hear but in the artificial one everything is decided beforehand."

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C. SECONDARY LEVEL

1. Realizing True Values in Literature

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REALIZATION OF VALUES depends considerably on their identification. The topic, therefore, involves two problems: first, establishing the values which derive from a study of literature; and, second, determining how these values are to be achieved in the reading of literature by the secondary school student. The scope of this paper, however, is not so neatly dichotomous.

Values in the study of literature seem to be of two kinds, part process and part product; and any hierarchy of values would probably focus on one or other of these depending on whether reading is viewed rather pragmatically as a skill essential for academic success or as an art, a fulfillment sufficient in itself. Specialists who have come into the reading field through elementary education generally tend to view reading as a skill whereas those with a background of English and literature see it as a cultural accomplishment, the first as a means and the second as an end. An examination of the various values associated with literature indicates an admixture of both elements.

For example, David Daiches in one instance emphasizes the process of reading, his values being (a) the uses of language, (b) the nature of form, and (c) the question of quality with the objective being ultimately to read with understanding and appreciation. He sees these values resulting from the "shock of recognition" in the total impact of meaning from a literary piece—in his example specifically poetry—and with eventual appreciation of craftsmanship on the part of the student and improvement in his own verbal expression. Essentially, he states, "The great thing is to stimulate and sustain curiosity" *(1)*. Leland Jacobs sees the values of the study of literature as (a) stimulating creativity, (b) giving openness to life, (c) giving insight into self, and (d) as reflecting form and order *(2)*.

Seeking more practical and immediate statement of values, I went directly into the marketplace to the purveyors and users of literature—teachers and students in secondary schools. A survey of seventy-eight teachers in thirteen secondary schools, ranging in teaching experience from one to twenty-eight years, resulted in the following values in order of frequency: (a) increased understanding of human nature; (b) refinement of aesthetic sensibilities and personal values; (c) expansion of cultural potential by sharing in the literature of other countries; (d) appreciation of the power of the word; and (e) improved communication, verbal and ideational.

A survey of approximately 100 high school seniors elicited the following hierarchy of values: (a) insight into human nature, life, and other people; (b) personal enjoyment; (c) improved communication and expression; (d) improved critical powers in reading and analyzing literature; and (e) appreciation of historical interrelationships.

Both groups see increased understanding of the human condition as the paramount value of literature study. Although the students tend to be a bit more pragmatic than the teachers, they alone listed personal enjoyment as one of the major values and they likewise recognized the power of literature to broaden personality, to enhance appreciation of beauty, to understand oneself better, and to provide a basis for common understanding.

No doubt a caucus of this or any group of educators would reveal very similar values accruing to the study of literature. Equally so, emphasis would be on the process, that is, entry into the work for maximum understanding and appreciation, or on the product, that is, the personality and life outcomes derived from literature, dependent on the experience and orientation of the individual. Nevertheless, each of us recognizes that the process is essential to the product, that no values—transient or permanent, casual or significant—are possible from

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the study of literature without initial facility in apprehending the complex ingredients of a literary piece.

This lengthy preamble specifically frames the problem of this paper: that all any teacher can do toward realization of the values inherent to the study of literature is to work on the process, to improve entry and understanding of what makes any work truly literary. Appreciation and other derivative effects will depend thereafter on elements—personal, environmental, or cultural—beyond the teacher's influence.

Several models are available for the intensive study of literature. Any approach, however, can be likened to peeling an onion, removing layer after layer of meaning until the core of complete understanding and possible appreciation is reached. David Russell *(3)* outlines four steps in going from the basic level of word association through literal meanings and interpretation to the final critical appraisal. A doctoral dissertation by Andresen *(4)* is based on a Profundity Scale which moves through five planes, the Physical, Mental, Moral, Psychological, and Philosophical, to achieve the hoped for eventual understanding and appreciation which are the objective of any literary study.

Personally, I suggest a model based on Bloom's *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives.* Bloom's five objectives may be loosely labeled as knowledge, comprehension, analysis or synthesis, evaluation, and application; they are here adapted to lead the student gradually but insistently into the full complexity of any work.

1. The *factual,* almost the superficial, which assumes knowledge of the words themselves, the recognition of facts and details, the plot, story-line, or sequence of events.

2. The *analytical,* which seems to identify relationships among the events or facts—cause and effect, comparison or contrast—designed to cause the student either to change the quality of the idea, see it in a different light, or make some associative use of the material.

3. The *interpretive,* which involves understanding of what the details mean or what the author intends.

4. The *evaluative,* which demands some kind of judgment as to the author's position, his use of the material, its presentation or acceptability.

5. The *critical* or *creative,* which concerns the matter of relevance, of pertinence, of application whereby the reader, understanding the full significance of the author's intent, *reacts* to it—either accepting it into the framework of his own thinking or rejecting it; in either case, his values are modified or influenced by the experience.

Admittedly these categories are rather rigid but they do permit access to discussion, examples, and instruction. They are not meant to be inseparable layers, individual stages which must be followed, Dante-like, to reach understanding and appreciation. Just as the trained mathematician compresses sequential steps in reaching his solution, so too the more sophisticated student—both in reading skills and in literary study—will move rapidly through these steps to immediate realization. At advanced stages, some ellipsis takes place, several layers peeling off simultaneously with more or less immediate reaction to the impact of what has been read. Nor can every reader progress through all the levels; the less able or interested may never go beyond basic understanding of meaning, ignoring or failing to accept, evaluate, or apply. It is difficult to allocate specific literary techniques to a particular step. In a very simple poem, for example, the form and cadence may be essential to literal meaning; in another more complicated selection full realization may come only after extensive discussion of the images, rhythms, and ironic overtones embedded in the author's architecture.

Space permits but a single example to clarify and illustrate how instruction might ideally proceed. The literal meaning of A. E. Housman's "With Rue My Heart is Laden" is almost immediately evident; students grasp meaning, theme, and tone quite spontaneously. Its simple statement is not obscured by difficult words or severely poetic diction. Only two words, perhaps, "rue" and "laden," are unfamiliar because somewhat archaic, but the context easily reveals or sustains them.

The unsophisticated reader of poetry,

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however—in this case, the average high school student—will fail to appreciate the delicate poetic devices by which the poet achieves his impact. Almost totally monosyllabic and perfectly iambic save for the feminine endings, the poem's understatement and restraint are essential to its success. The interplay of masculine-feminine rhymes provides thrust and some lightness to the subject, consistent with the sportive air associated with youth. The counterpoint of the two stanzas likewise contributes to the effect: in the first, the vowels are light, even the few heavy syllables being masked by the skipping quality of the total movement; the second stanza, using often the very same words, is slower and heavier, governed largely by the prolonged dark vowels and diphthongs of its first line. Moreover, the "light-foot lads" and "rose-lipt girls" in the second stanza echo the first stanza but contrast with them through syntactical transposition. Echo and reversal are unified with the final line in that the reader must recall—even glance back to—the first line of the poem which is the only real statement the poet wishes to make.

All of this contributes to the total effect of the poem, in this case hardly any "shock of recognition" because acceptance and verification are almost instantaneous. But the unwary reader fails to realize how many elements have coalesced to his satisfaction. The values of a poem such as this are inherently structural, the various elements all uniting to release the poignancy of theme and tone. There is no "big" idea here but certainly there are seeds for growth and maturity application to which even the teenager can respond. The stages or levels into creative reading, that is, realization of the values, are not distinct and separate. Literal meaning, as previously stated, is almost immediate; interpretation is induced through the careful analysis of diction, rhythm, and imagery in the poem. Evaluation, the students' overall reactions to the poem's success, can be elicited, but full realization of values is too personal to be assessed.

These steps, I insist, are best presented through questioning and discussion, not by explication or lecture. It may be time-consuming but it is preferable to lead students patiently through the route of discovery so they may retrace it themselves in other circumstances.

Other more demanding selections lend themselves more urgently to gradual unravelment. On initial reading, Keats' "Ode on a Grecian Urn," for example, generally baffles students; the subject matter is beyond their concern, and the poem itself seems to be a weird combination of abstractions, archaisms, allusions, rhetorical questions. The key to the entire poem is in the first stanza, in fact, in the opening lines. Step by step understanding can be developed: a certain amount of antecedent housecleaning—to recognize Keats as a very normal if highly sensitive human being; knowledge of the basic circumstances which provoke the work; study of the diction, particularly the key words in the opening lines, and of the rhetorical structure. Once these elements are acknowledged, then the full significance of the "frozen" quality of sound, motion, color—all the sensuous details—follows. Actually, students react most favorably when meaning is slowly unfolded to total discovery of the poet's perception of beauty, the service of language at his command, even the cleverly deceptive tableau he exultantly describes.

The same method can be applied with longer works, particularly when layers of meaning are artfully concealed from the casual reader. In fiction and satire—*Huckleberry Finn, Gulliver's Travels,* and *Alice in Wonderland,* for example—the literal meaning is evident even to very youthful readers. But the full significance of the work, the subtle or savage or delicate commentary on the human condition, can be recognized only after thorough study. *Huck* can be read on several levels (as has been exhaustively examined in the literature) and must be by secondary students because of its relevance to their own condition; the adventure story, the entire initiation rite, the sociological aspects, the deep ironies which lie at the heart of Twain's message.

Values in the study of literature, then, seem to be twofold — immediate and enduring, part process and part product: the one sharpening and heightening perception and apprehension of the work

itself, the author's purpose and technique; the other leading to development and expansion of the person by increased awareness of self, the human condition, or beauty in its myriad manifestations. Every teacher must exploit fully the opportunities for enrichment and realization of the values which lie within the reading process itself and those which can be the product of the careful analytic reading literature demands.

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4. Stimulating Reading in the Senior High School

MARIE G. GEORGE

"READING is to the mind what exercise is to the body." Few educators are willing to discountenance Addison's Theory, advanced so long ago, but in 1964 it requires a skillful, dedicated teacher to convince average teenagers that this is so and that students should begin, at least, to see the relationships in the world of ideas that are available to them in books; to reflect upon the ever ancient, ever new flow of human life recorded by writers down through the ages. The young people served by the high school English or reading teacher need to read well.

Let us consider some of the methods used by senior high school teachers to stimulate an interest in reading at the same time reading skills and competencies are being developed. First, teachers are helping pupils to define and keep in mind their purpose. If pupils know their purpose, the chances are good that comprehension and speed will improve. If a teacher asks pupils why they read, they will tell him: (1) for entertainment, (2) to learn about people and places, (3) to locate facts or verify information, (4) to provide information asked for in an order blank or questionnaire, (5) to learn to do or make something. Every assignment should define pupils' reading purposes. If pupils are reading a mystery story, they should know in advance that they are to entertain themselves by matching wits with the detective. In a poem such as Robert Frost's "The Road Not Taken" pupils may be led to relate the author's purpose to their life goals through questions such as these: How many roads in life lie ahead of you? Which one will you take? What kind of work do you want to be doing ten or twenty years from now? When you are forty years old, what roads in life may you wish you had taken?

Our second aim is to help pupils to read at an efficient rate. Rapid reading is not enough. Fast readers are not always good readers nor are the slow readers necessarily poor readers. Teaching pupils to read faster may or may not improve their comprehension. Since speed without comprehension is worthless, it is believed that the greater emphasis should always be placed upon comprehension in a reading program.

The third aim of the developmental reading program must place emphasis on helping pupils to locate main ideas. This may be done by having pupils outline the author's main points in an expository article. They find his main points by locating topic sentences and by noting transitional words such as *first, second, next, then, moreover, finally* and phrases such as *in addition to, the next point,* and *equally important.* These often introduce important ideas. Also, where subtopics or paragraph headings or summary paragraphs are provided, pupils are taught to look for clues to the author's thesis in the title of the selection, in the first and last paragraph, and in accompanying charts, graphs, drawings, and pictures.

All subject matter teachers should teach students to read with critical judgment. Teachers must try to help youth to understand the meaning of life, to harmonize their ambitions with reality, and to acquire values and a sane philosophy of living which will stand up against the stresses and strains of this half-century. Adolescents who are stimulated to read with critical judgment learn to read with appreciation and discrimination. Their minds are alert and open to new ideas and information. They are not fooled or misled by glittering words, high-level abstractions, qualifying phrases, and distorted value judgments. They are mature readers who go behind the verbal symbols and concepts to seek the truth—for only the truth can make them intelligent, responsible citizens.

Whenever oral and written book reports or discussions are assigned, they should contribute to students' lifetime interests in literature and add to their literary growth. Such reports should not require students merely to prepare a summary of the setting, plot, characters, climax and outcome of the book. Students should react to some of their reading in much the same manner as a literary critic who reviews and evaluates newly published literature. Oral book reports may not only serve to motivate reading in new and diverse areas, but may also give students practice in communicating to others personal convictions or vicarious experiences which have influenced their thoughts or feelings.

If high school students are to be motivated and stimulated to more and better reading, the teacher must provide a suitable emotional and physical climate, teach students to fit reading speed to their purpose and to the type of material, use the dictionary in every class, develop a list of most-used words in one's own area and set out to teach specifically a number of them, build assignments around the dual purposes of producing an interest in subject matter learning and of developing reading skills in which the students are deficient, develop readiness by discussing the purpose of the assignment, develop recreational reading through discovered pupil interest, develop ability to interpret character from reading, develop speed through timed exercises, improve reading through the use of the index, develop skills in reading graphs and tables, and guide the students' reading for personal development.

How does one get a senior high school pupil to read? Why should he read? The reading teacher must first be convinced himself.

Reading adds variety to one's life. It adds to one's experience. We can think only in terms of words. Reading is the richest source of vicarious experience. Reading matures us. It awaits our own creativity. Are you able to convince every pupil you serve that this is so?

In your attempt to stimulate reading among high school students I would implore you to use every device at your command to encourage parents to read. You yourself must be readers. Talk with students about your reading. Explore the library with them. Have suggestions ready when the opportunity presents itself. Be a resource person in your own right. Don't be afraid to acquaint yourself with "kid" literature. For a change of pace read for fun. Learn to connect books with individuals. Sell books to your students. How long has it been since you read to your students? Revive this seemingly lost art. Don't be afraid to devote some time to reading aloud. It matters not whether you choose poetry or prose. Just let the high school student hear words for a change.

Let your room reflect books, many books, attractively displayed, invitingly accessible, books for the slow learner, the average learner, the advanced. Encourage the pupils to develop their own library, to develop a pride in the ownership of books through the many book clubs that are available. Encourage a free exchange of book evaluation by means of the panel discussion and share them with other groups. Group students so that books they read provide an opportunity for comparison and contrast, for example, *The Old Man and the Sea*, *Kon-Tiki*, *Moby Dick*. Provide opportunities for students to be stimulated by their peers. Reach the parents through the mass media, newspapers, television, radio.

The reading teacher in the senior high school must search for every conceivable device to stimulate her students. A technique that works for some may not work for another. Complex as the reading skills are, they are not enough by themselves, because they do not ensure that reading will become a habit. Both teachers and parents need to be concerned that children not only develop the ability to read, but that they also develop a fondness for books. Fortunately, skillful reading and the love of reading reinforce one another to produce the answer to what reading is.

While encouraging reading is highly important, we cannot and should not attempt to accomplish this task ourselves. It is for the student to read, reason, and reflect on the events, people and ideas in his world of reading. We can aid him best with a program of reading aimed at eliciting thought. St. Thomas' words well apply here: "What you read set about to understand, verifying what is doubtful; strive to put whatsoever you can in the cupboard of your mind, as though you were wanting to fill a vessel to the brim." Sister Margaret Miriam of the Bishop McCort High School adds a footnote to St. Thomas' philosophy by saying that "who awakes youthful minds to the merits of thoughtful reading, to the value of precise written expression, has done a small part at least, in supplying the need for greater appreciation of that enlargement and enrichment which is the goal of all true education."

Yes, "reading is to the mind what exercise is to the body." Truly "reading maketh a full man."

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2. A Different Drummer

M. AGNELLA GUNN

In introducing our discussion about developing lifelong reading habits with teen-agers, I think Thoreau's injunction has special pertinence:

> If a man does not keep pace with his companions, perhaps it is because he hears a different drummer. Let him step to the music which he hears, however measured or far away.

Our teen-agers hear many different drummers and step to vastly different kinds of music. We who would affect their lives need to consider carefully their almost infinite variety. First let me ask you, "What turned you into a reader? What forces, operative when you were a teen-ager, affected your voluntary, independent reading habits? What personal inner drummer are you hearing when you choose what you read today?" An objective look at today's teen-agers in general, and a brief subjective analysis of ourselves as individual teen-agers might be significant and revealing.

I. What is a "teen-ager"?

"He's a person who has left where he was and hasn't arrived where he is going." In this facetious definition lies the serious core of our discussion. If reading is important, or becomes important, to him during this bumpy segment of his life journey, it is likely to remain with him.

What characteristics does he have which are of import to us? In age, he is in the turbulent seven years between thirteen and nineteen. In maturity, he ranges unevenly from an immature child to a responsible young adult. The teen-ager may be just entering the seventh or eighth grade or, if a girl she has a 50-50 chance at 19 of already having been married a year. In number, he is so many and so important that he forms a subculture within our society, a kind of special-interest group like the farm bloc or organized labor. Economically, he is spending enough millions to be the target of specifically designed national advertising. In 1958, 17 million teen-agers spent 9½ billion dollars of their own money—one third of it their own earnings, two thirds of it their allowances. Clothes, food, drink, typewriters are designed for him; magazines are edited for him. In capacity and achievement, in potential and accomplishment, he ranges across the entire spectrum.

Three aspects of his personality pattern are now emerging more strongly and more rapidly: his need for self-realization, for self-assertion, and for self-appraisal. The teen-ager wants to belong, he wants to be popular but the one-sex gang is now becoming "the crowd" and expanding. He continues to be egocentric, but he is developing interest beyond himself and his own welfare and becoming more concerned with people and places remote both in time and in space. He wants to know. He is curious. He wants to increase his knowledge of the world. His interests, broad and intense, albeit relatively short-lived, are usually associated with his strengthening drive toward independence. He is recognizing the values—to him—of accepting his culture's standard of conduct, of having long-term goals, and of making exploratory plans for his life work. In all these displays of expanding interests, he is affected by many factors, including his own mental stature, his sex, and the time at his disposal. He is also significantly affected—and this has special import for us—by his environment: his home, his peer group, and his school.

Most adolescents like to go to movies and to watch TV. But they are tapering off from their sixth-grade peak when they enter junior high school, a shift from about 25 hours a week of viewing to about 15 hours a week by the time they are in high school. Most adolescents also like to read, and many make an important shift to print when they are about twelve.

One of the clearest indications of the teen-ager's growth toward maturity lies in the changes in his concept of self. The fixed childhood concept tends normally to be shaken loose and become disrupted with the spurt of adolescent growth; it remains unstable throughout adolescence, and then reaches a new stability and crystalizes with a more mature, representative self-image. The teen-ager's emotional maturity may be gauged by such qualities

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as: his self-direction; his human sensitivity; his industry; his willingness to face reality; and his courage to stand for values—for what he believes to be good and right.

The less perceptive and the less psychologically mature, regardless of their age, continue to like life simplified—to see adults in TV or books who are not confusing nor complicated, nor ambivalent. They like obviously plotted narrative and heightened, magnified emotion. The more able and the more sophisticated young viewers, however, are becoming less satisfied with the easy oversimplification of movies and TV and shift to other activities including the reading of somewhat better books, magazines, and newspapers.

This close look at the teen-ager is far from irrelevant, for unless we take these facts of life into consideration and adjust instruction realistically in terms of them, our efforts to modify youngsters' lifetime behavior are almost certain to fail. We need to bring powerful imagination and creativity into play to affect the reading habits of these different individuals who are marching to so many different drummers.

II. What are the bases for developing lifelong reading habits with these different teen-agers?

Two primary factors are operative, I believe.—POWER and INTEREST. They are interrelated but I am separating them here for discussion. Power comes first. In reading no one can have pleasure unless he has power. No power, no fun! But in our dogged emphasis on basic skill-building we may seem to ignore what the skill-building is for. The delight, broadly conceived, which reading power is supposed to insure, often gets short shrift. The first three of the five levels of reading instruction, or rungs up the reading ladder—the period of preparation, of beginning instruction, of rapid progress in fundamental skills—are of obvious importance. But the fourth and fifth levels—wide reading, and refinement of reading tastes—are important too. Yet these may, in effect, be neglected or restricted to the more able pupils in the upper grades. I shall return to these two later. Now I want to pay profound obeisance to the prior claim of power on all five levels and move to the second of the two operative factors—delight, or more restrainedly —*interest* in reading.

Why is the teen-ager interested in reading? Why are you? In preparing for this paper, I made an informal survey in one adult segment of the population, by asking about 50 "readers" this question:

> When you were a teen-ager, what were the influences that turned you into a reader? (Or another way of saying it might be—As a teen-ager what got you permanently "hooked" on books?)

As you would expect the answers differed widely, although certain patterns emerge. These few excerpts are testimony to the varied kinds of personal experiences, influences, and satisfactions which led to permanent interests in reading.

From the first three, we can make some inferences about the significance of environment, and of the effects of adult example, of an early start; of the availability of books, and of self-realization:

> "I had been 'hooked' on books since I was three or four years old. By my teens I couldn't have 'kicked the habit' if I tried."
>
> "My parents were avid readers. Books were all over the house. I could read whatever I wished. I learned that books satisfied my curiosity on many topics. Books were exciting, and they were tremendous entertainment."
>
> "I was a young boy on the altar of our church. There was a strange tongue used called 'Latin.' It sounded exciting and even romantic. The parish priest let me borrow some books with pictures and stories in them. They were part of the *Book of Knowledge*. I looked at and soon read every volume in the whole series. This is how it was."

In the next three we can see, in addition to the influences mentioned above, a warning as well as the significance, of satisfaction, of curiosity, of industry, of self-assertion, of self-appraisal, and of emerging self-direction:

> "I probably didn't read too much in the sense of better literature, but our Canadian mining town was unique in that it had a library; I also had a curious and intelligent father (although he had only Grade 3 education) from whom I suppose I accepted the idea that education was something that you had to pursue all your life. Come to think of it, I probably still harbor a vague dislike for the 'better' literature because, in

> our little high school, it was crammed down our throats."
>
> "I disliked farming—appeared to have some imagination—reading was an escape from reality, an introduction to vicarious living!!"
>
> "I was reading at four. By nine, I had read almost all the books in the children's section of the city library. I was sent to the country for six months and forbidden to read. But, during high school, I read two or three books every evening."

In the next unusually perceptive analysis we can see also the fulfillment of basic needs such as the need for belonging, the need of achievement, the need for self-respect.

> "An inspiring seventh-grade teacher of English.
>
> "A realization that family and friends respected 'knowledge and culture' in a child and the need to get that kind of recognition.
>
> "A need to escape everyday frustrations of a lower-class family.
>
> "A dawning realization of the existence of worlds of knowledge and experience heretofore not realized.
>
> "A growing fascination with 'words' and the rhythm of language."

Unless reading becomes both voluntary and independent it is not likely to become permanent. In this next answer we see, however, that it may start quite differently. Here also is a penetrating analysis of a boy's reading for many kinds of escape—escape from thinking, from fear, from possible disappointment.

> "It's hard to be truthful about such a question—because memory has a way of becoming overlaid with wishful thoughts. However, as I think back, I would bring out three outstanding factors that had the influences that you seem to be seeking:
>
> 1. A schooling that literally left time for hardly anything else but reading. I went to school in England, and we had about two or three hours homework every night, after finishing school at 4 P.M. Often I didn't get home until 5 P.M., then there was supper, after which homework took me almost invariably until bed time. This was the pattern for virtually all of my classmates. This reading, it should be stressed, was not done with enjoyment, alacrity, or enthusiasm: it just had to be done. I was not so much 'hooked' on reading as forced into the *habit* of reading.
>
> 2. Probably of greater psychological, although not mechanical, significance was the use of reading as a sop to the conscience. As long as I was reading I was able to persuade myself that I was doing something respectable and 'good.' This was particularly valuable in that reading usually combined the puritan virtue of satisfying the conscience with the hedonistic virtue of avoiding the pain of thinking. As long as one is reading, one can usually avoid the painful possibility of real thought. Thinking and reading are usually *alternatives* at any moment of time.
>
> 3. Reading was a way of avoiding the more risky, and less reliably conquered, challenges of the outside world. Since I was of a rather timid and nonviolent temperament, reading was the best way I could think of to avoid meeting people, to avoid engaging in encounters that I might not enjoy or measure up to, and generally to avoid living on the plane of unpredictability."

These excerpts suggest that reading purposes, satisfactions, and fulfillments are almost myriad. They seem, like love, to grow by what they feed upon. Or like germs, once books get into the bloodstream, they multiply. Extending interests through books is not new, but it is the *sine qua non* of building permanent love of reading.

Some may argue, and cogently, that strengthening fundamental *skill* and developing *interest* define our reading responsibility with teen-agers. I do not agree. Mere skill and interest are not enough. The youngster who becomes a permanent reader beyond the trivial level, is probably held by his growing insights into what good reading is and what it can do. Real power presumes levels four and five—extending and enriching reading interests, and refining reading tastes. Taste and refinement are the "pay off" of previous growth. In a democracy we are not satisfied to develop citizens who read with facility, interest, and almost complete contentment the sport page, the fashion magazine, and the stereotyped thriller. We can do better. America hasn't yet ranked higher than seventh in literacy and in consumption of books. We must do better.

The five levels of instruction mentioned earlier are too often thought of as sequential steps but I believe they involve many abilities which should be developed simultaneously. In other words, attention to taste should begin early not late. It should start as soon as reading itself—as with the kindergartner who said to his teacher, "Oh, that poem's gooder than the last one." Sensing the "gooder" and then later discovering why, or in what way, it is "gooder" is the basis of discrimination. Isn't the essence of taste establishing standards for oneself and becoming increasingly dissatisfied with the second-rate? Isn't it a long time a-growing, and isn't it built on an almost infinite number of independent judgments?

Not every teen-ager will become a devotee of literature either informative or fictional. But regardless of the level on which he reads or the genre in which he finds pleasure, he can be helped to discern differences. For example, he can be helped to see the dissimilarities in the calibre of writing in SPORTS ILLUSTRATED and in the local sports page. He can be helped to gain insight into the static unreality of boys in the series books and contrast them with developing maturity of a boy like Skeeter in James Street's *Goodbye My Lady* as he faces up to the bitter reality of conflicting values and makes his independent decision to return "My Lady."

Insight into the craft of literature, answers to the probing question, "What makes a story good?" can bring immediate and increasing satisfactions. To accomplish this end, both approaches are important: intensive, close guided reading and extensive independent reading.

Taste is and should be a highly personal matter. It seems to mature best under inductive teaching and nondirective guidance.

Learning to discriminate in reading is rather like learning to "see" when you "look" at art; like visiting a gallery with a perceptive guide who helps you see the elements of composition, balance, rhythm, textures, brush strokes that you had looked at but had never really seen before. Gradually, if you developed independence in judgment, you saw similarities and differences yourself, and set up your own criteria for evaluating.

III. What are some practical suggestions for developing lifetime interest in reading?

After urging the importance of knowing the teen-ager and of teaching reading so as to develop his power, interest, and taste, I will close with a mere half dozen suggestions, relying on your creative imagination to dream up your own specific techniques which will work for you.

1. CREATE an environment, physical and psychological, where independent reading is expected and respected; where newspapers, magazines, and books, books, books are available, attractive, abundant.
2. SALVAGE regular school time and space for reading so that it's not news that everyone reads.
3. PROVIDE creative instruction, guidance and freedom for individual exploration.
4. SHOW your own lifelong reading interests, professional and personal, so that you and the pupils know the sources, the indexes, the reviews; develop specialities; probe some area in depth; buy their own paperbacks.
5. INVOLVE other departments in your plans for individual reading; for example, elicit suggestions from the mathematics teacher, or ask approval of your own selected listing in his field.
6. CULTIVATE pupils' individual differences—even their idiosyncrasies.

Lifelong love of reading will come, I believe, when pupils have freedom to listen to their own individual drummers, and are growing in power, interest, and taste as they step to the music which they hear.

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1. Promoting a Love Affair with Books

CAN WE BE SURE that the friendship we are promoting between pupils and reading will develop into a "grand passion" or, at least, into a warm and lasting relationship? Probably not. But we can increase the likelihood of its happening if we are guided by 1] the advice of psychologists; 2] the results of research (formal and hard-nosed, or informal and empirical); and 3] the behavioral changes in pupils themselves.

What Are These Independent Personal Satisfactions? From What Do They Stem? How Can Teachers Foster Them?

These questions interlock and it is far easier to raise questions than to answer them. Do you remember Einobarbus' description of Cleopatra? "Age cannot wither her nor custom stale her infinite variety." Here, too, we have infinite variety, for a person's satisfactions in reading are as different as the persons are diverse. A pupil's values are deeply personal and built around his own self-image. But they spring from common basic sources within the personality structure. Ketchum (7:380-86) identifies five of these sources in "The Emotional Impact of Reading Success and Failure."

1] The need to be loved, to have approval and affection. This is the primary receptive emotional need.
2] The need to love others. Here we have the outgoing emotional force of aggression, the drive which impels us to action.
3] The ego, the strong drive for sense of self. This is the very core of human individuality. Helping the ego to adjust to environmental demands and pressures involves the ethical and moral censors.
4] The acquisitive impulse. This activates the drive for ownership or possession, for goal-seeking or achieving.
5] The drive toward finding pleasure, joy, or satisfaction. Here is stimulus for positive action.

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The learning process involves all five of these forces and the *good* learning situation requires them in balance to defend the individual against stress, or tension, and the consequent reactions harmful to success in learning.

By What General Means Does the Teacher Promote Success in Reading?

Using knowledge of these basic aspects of personality structure, the effective teacher nurtures and promotes success in reading by six related means:

1] Differentiated teaching methods (to which we give frequent, easy lip service and infrequent demonstrations).
2] Materials of many kinds and many levels of difficulty to provide, by anticipation and avoidance of repetitive frustration, for broad and rich reading experiences.
3] Encouragement and genuine approval.
4] Varied means of stimulation and motivation.
5] Sequential structured teaching to develop disciplined power and independence.
6] Abundant opportunities for pupil's own choices and by promoting the building of personal libraries geared to the pupil's powers and interests.

What Are the Sources of Satisfactions in Reading?

Pleasure in reading comes from using our reading power to satisfy a variety of purposes, and it comes from reading both imaginative and factual materials. For example, we read with deep satisfaction the road sign that says, "Only ten miles to . . ." wherever it is we are going. We get pleasure from a vivid account of the foreign country that we are going to visit, actually or vicariously. We get a different kind of satisfaction if our purpose is to understand the important steps in a "how-to-do-it" sequence or if our purpose is to grasp the clarification of the complex process of the making of a president in White's excellent book of that name. Such satisfactions are vital and ongoing. Like love, they grow by what they feed upon.

But the reading which stretches our mental muscles, which enriches our personal lives, which enlarges our perspective on ourselves and on the world—this reading is likely to be imaginative or literary: fiction, drama, poetry. Not every pupil will enter fully into this world of the imagination, but each can surely be led, or enticed, to move in that direction. Many

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elements enter into the choices pupils make that gradually lead them up the ladder of discernment and impel them to select more judiciously one book instead of another.

What Experiences Develop Attitudes Leading to a Love of Reading?

The first requirement for the development of good attitudes toward reading is obviously growth in reading power. But research studies reveal a disappointing lack of emphasis on building the very skills on which critical judgment is posited. The preliminary analysis of the findings of the 1965 NCTE study of the English and reading programs of 168 high schools (*11*:468-472) reveals that:

> Careful distinction between the teaching of literature *per se* and the teaching of students to *read* literature were not found to be characteristic of many classrooms.
>
> A lack of attention to the skills of reading, even the skills of reading literature, seems apparent. Departmental chairmen claim that only 3 to 4 per cent of instructional time in Grade 10 devoted to reading, declining to 2 percent in Grade 12. . . . Reading received attention in only 10 percent of the classrooms.
>
> . . . High school English programs devote overwhelming attention to the study of literature, rather than to the skills involved in reading such literature. The student is apparently expected to become an "active and critical reader" simply from extensive reading.
>
> . . . Perhaps the problem is to help teachers see that in high schools the critical study of literature involves the teaching of reading!

What Are the Clusters of Abilities Involved in Reading Literature?

Burton (*3*:87-99) suggests a four-layer description of the structure of literature:

Layer 1: Themes which develop from four basic relationships: Man and deity; man and other men; man and nature; man and himself.

Layer 2: Modes, of which there are four basic ones, according to Frye—romantic, comic, tragic, and ironic. Romantic and comic modes, Frye maintains, are the easier; tragic and ironic the more difficult.

Layer 3: Genres, of which the modern imaginative ones are novel, short story, poem and play.

Layer 4: The individual selection.

Learning to read literature implies an awareness of these layers of structure. All teaching of the skills of reading literature takes place in this general context.

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If the major purpose of teaching students to read literature is to enable them to gain "felt" knowledge—and I think it is—and, if the training which leads to this ability involves enjoyment—and I think it does—then the relationship of enjoyment or appreciation, on the one hand, and study or analysis, on the other, becomes a dilemma of the chicken-or-egg variety.

This brings us, then, to the actual hierarchy of skills with which we will be concerned in teaching students to read literature. It seems to me that three sets of abilities comprise this hierarchy:

1] Abilities needed for imaginative entry into a work of literature.
2] Abilities needed for perception of meaning or central purpose.
3] Abilities for perception of artistic unity and significance.

All of these three sets of abilities involve both intellectual and emotional reactions on the part of the reader of literature.

What Materials Should Pupils Read?

But growing powers are not enough. A second requirement for the development of good attitudes toward reading is an abundance of available and varied materials to meet and extend interests. What do pupils in junior and senior high school like to read? In 1957, Arno Jewett's (*6*:26-33) analysis of over 200 studies of reading interests revealed that the findings were in general agreement. In 1965 the findings of the NCTE study of English programs previously cited reaffirmed what the earlier studies had revealed: that pupils prefer fiction to non-fiction, and that they like detective mystery stories, adventure and war stories, and stories of romance. The NCTE study (*11*) included magazines and revealed significant absences from school libraries of the titles rated high by pupils. It also reveals a similar disparity in books and raises a pertinent question:

> . . . The one magazine in almost all of the libraries, *The Saturday Review*, is ranked 25th in popularity by the adolescents. *Post, Life, Atlantic,* and *Harper's* are available in equal numbers; the first two high on student reading lists, the others missing the top 29 favorites. *Seventeen* is ranked 5th by students, but 25 percent of the libraries do not have it; *Look*, rated 4th, is absent from as many. *Hot Rod, Sports,* and *Ingenue,* rated 11th, 12th, and 13th are present in only 42 percent, 23 percent, and 11 percent of the libraries. No one will argue that such absences prevent students from important literary reading experiences, but the absence may contribute to the lack of interest of students in any library reading experiences at all. . . . The great majority of English teachers prefer to have their students

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seek books to read from the school library (65.8 percent) rather than from the public library (12.5 percent) or elsewhere. Why? Because it is safer? The findings emerging from this study seem to suggest a dual book culture for the reading of young people—the acceptable, safe books read in the school library, and the preferred titles (sometimes of high literary quality) which can be found in the public library and read on one's own at home. Perhaps this is as it should be. But one wonders how students will acquire the needed help and guidance necessary to read Faulkner and Joyce and other major modern writers. We talk much about using our programs in literature to pass along to young people our common cultural heritage. Yet part of the intellectual heritage of America today is the vigorous realistic tradition of Twentieth Century writers. Should not we find better ways of coping with this tradition in our schools?

Materials to do such teaching and to meet and extend interests are not only physically abundant but financially available. The paperback tornado is blowing some good things our way. In his discussion of paperbacks, Sohn (*13*:163) says:

> To hear that paperback books are being sold to the public at the rate of over a million per working day should be music to the reading teacher's ears. An illiterate nation does not buy books at that rate. Somebody must be reading them. The question arises, however, as to why paperbacks appeal to adults and students alike?
>
> . . . The hardcover is to the student a durable, heavy, old-fashioned medium. The paperback is light, up-to-date, appealing. *Hardcover* is texty, drab, adult, bulky, slow-moving, permanent. *Paperback* is young, colorful, shorter, spirited, temporary. It makes little difference that *Robinson Crusoe* appears in both forms with the identical words in each version. The paperback has a more modern message. This phenomenon shakes our prejudice and jostles our traditional thinking.

We may well be beginning to win our battle with lack of quantity in reading, and we are now in an advantageous position for making wide choices for supplementing the textbooks, and for selecting for close teaching those appropriate books which also elicit our own enthusiasm and generate contagious interest. In addition, we can encourage the pupil to purchase his own copies and build his own library, and we can now easily establish our own classroom libraries.

Sohn quotes Vice-President Humphrey's (*13*) suggestion that every boy and girl in America should have his own small library, developing the idea that we should encourage "a love of books amongst our young people as great as the love of an automobile."

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What Do Young People Enjoy Reading?

Pertinent here is a study by Bloomer (*1*) of the younger children's free withdrawals of books. He found that the children's choice of an identification figure (heroes or villains) tends to indicate the direction and force of a child's need and can serve as one guide or selection device for reading materials. Children tend to choose books with a relatively high degree of conflict, yet education materials tend to err on the side of too little conflict.

What is the evidence that we are succeeding in fostering higher levels of satistaction in reading? Hard-nosed research in this area is regrettably scant. Smith (*10*:3-7) says in her introduction to the NCRE research pamphlet that the topic of developing taste in literature has all but vanished from research consideration.

However, some early studies, such as La Brant's (*8*:213-217), resulted in constructive and still valid conclusions—that the problem of teaching pupils to read good magazines lies in making them available in quantity, in providing situations where they can be read profitably, and in allowing leisure for their use.

A study by Squire (*12*) dealt with the characteristics of adolescents who respond positively to imaginative literature. He identifies five characteristics:

1] These youngsters react with genuineness; they do not substitute the standards or judgments of others (the teacher, critic, or other students) for their own.
2] They suspend judgment until they have tested tentative interpretations.
3] They are willing to search for meanings.
4] They weigh evidence, judge details objectively, and maintain esthetic distance.
5] They fuse emotional and intellectual responses; *i.e.*, they are able to respond emotionally at the same time that they are concerned with the way in which literary artists achieve their effects.

In this study lie clear implications for the need of inductive teaching—for the shift of emphasis from classroom procedures based on the teacher's telling to those which promote the pupil's discovering.

Many implications for the classroom teacher are supported by these research studies. One valuable suggestion for selection and approach is made by Carlsen (*4*:7-12), who says in part,

> Out of thirty years of investigation of adolescent reading interests, we have arrived with some surety at the kinds of books that young people like. Amazingly these interests have not changed substantially in the thirty years, nor do they change from one geographic area of the country or of the world to another. From some evidence presented by Norvell, even the teaching quality seems not to affect materially the interests of young people, children under a good teacher liking and disliking much the same things as do those who are under a weak teacher.
>
> Reading interests have almost always been classified in terms of something found in the book such as mystery, adventure, family life, animals. In general, investigators have asked, "What is there in young people that makes them choose certain kinds of content at this period of their lives?" To answer such a question, it is helpful to line up the findings of reading interest studies with the findings of adolescent psychology, particularly those dealing with problems and needs of young people. Out of such a pairing, three broad areas of need appear that seem to account for many of the choices students make.

Young people need assurance of their status as human beings. A second area of need in the developing adolescent is the assurance of his own normality. A third need is that for role playing. Consequently, Carlsen suggests experimenting with an approach to literature which takes its direction from pupil needs, which is based on selected materials which have high relevance for students, and which bears for them deeper and greater personal significance.

Broening (*2*:48) summarizes implications of her research in her review of studies on the development of taste in literature in the senior high school, as follows:

> Literary taste can be developed and is influenced by home, school, and community stimulation to reading. Growth in literary taste is related to the emotional and intellectual status of the individual. There is a relationship between the development of literary taste and:
>
> 1] direct teaching of interpretive reading skills;
> 2] the availablity of a range of literature appropiate to the reader's emotional and intellectual maturity;
> 3] teacher and librarian guidance through which the individual reader can develop criteria for choosing the right book for his purpose and mood;
> 4] satisfaction in enjoying literature as an aesthetic experience; and
> 5] motivation for reading literature as a source of relaxation, revelation, and renewal.

In summary, may I say that continuing satisfactory interaction between a pupil and books is based on: 1] developing his reading power; 2] disciplining his tastes; and 3] deepening his view of the world. We need much more research and more refined research on these vital aspects of reading. As Felix Rabb (*9*) said, "We should give at least as much support and attention to the exploration of the space lying between the ears of 75 million young Americans as we do to the exploration of *outer* space."

Dr. Ole Sand, director of the National Education Association's Center for Instruction, suggested that our debt to science, responsible for great advances in the human condition, be kept in a clear perspective: Ask today's child about the sun and he will tell you that it is 93,000,000 miles from the earth, nearly 900 thousand miles in diameter . . . with a surface rotation of about 25 days at the equator. Perhaps he must be taught all these things. Yet it will always be the larger purpose of education to show him the *radiance of a sunset.*

As we go about promoting a love affair between pupils and books we need to help them find increasing satisfactions not only in reading to discover facts about the sun but also to discover the radiance of the sunset.

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D. SENIOR HIGH LEVEL

1. Developing Lifetime Reading Habits and Attitudes Through Literature

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WHAT are the reading habits and attitudes which we hope to develop through the teaching of literature in high school?

Identification of Some of the Habits and Attitudes We Wish to Develop

1. The habit of finding sheer enjoyment from the written page.
2. The habit of sympathizing and empathizing with the problems of others met through reading.
3. The habit of reading poetry, and sharing it aloud with others.
4. The habit of recognizing style, and stopping to savor a well-written passage.
5. The habit of agreeing with or fighting back against the written word.
6. The ability to discern the eternal verities as they recur in memorable literature.
7. The ability to compare and contrast the ideas, styles and sensory images conjured up by different authors as they write about the same topic.
8. The ability to recognize levels of understanding which develop with maturity and further reading.
9. The habit of stretching the mind against a book or article.

Getting the Student's Point of View

When I decided to get the point of view of the student about to be graduated from high school, I asked the guidance department of a local high school to set up two taping sessions for me. The first comprised five seniors who ranked at the top of their class academically and showed considerable prowess in the field of language arts. The second was a group of seniors who were of average intelligence, but were doing unacceptable work in English. Each group met with me for one hundred minutes of taping.

In Group One, three boys indicated they had been taught to read at home before kindergarten. The fourth boy felt he hadn't really started until third grade, and the fifth punctured the balloon by indicating that he too, had *pretended* to read before kindergarten and had fooled all the adults into believing his precocity. After that the group relaxed, nodded heads, and stopped trying to impress me and each other.

Both groups were in accord on one aspect of literature. There should be more contemporary literature and less classical. They had hated *The Red Badge of Courage*, and *The Scarlet Letter*. When I asked for the reason, their answers varied: too much description, too little action, too much exposition.

They read World War One and Two stories with great interest, but *Red Badge* *of Courage* did not contain enough action.

When I showed no signs of agreeing or disagreeing regarding their views on contemporary literature (and it was not my function to agree or to disagree), they began to fight back against their own ideas. They agreed that we do need some classical literature. But to make it more interesting, the interpretations should not be dictated.

Interpretation of Poetry

One boy mentioned Frost's "Stopping by Woods on a Snowy Evening." Everyone nodded. For the next several minutes, they discussed that poem. They had all enjoyed it on first reading, but after they discovered they didn't know the meaning, they became discouraged. One boy contended that the poem meant just what it said. A man had stopped to watch a woods fill up with snow—the horse had reminded him that he had other things to do, so he went on.

When I asked if this interpretation had not been acceptable, I learned that it had not. The teacher had felt it meant death. The boy's simple interpretation was unacceptable and his enjoyment nullified.

The Responsibility of the Teacher

Dr. Painter places the responsibility squarely upon the teacher in the March 1965 *Journal of Reading,* when she says:

> The key to the building of lifetime reading habits lies in large measure with an interested, perceptive teacher who helps students in basic reading skills; who has read so extensively in both old and new literature that he is able to guide young people to books related to their interest; who understands the reading interests of adolescents; who concentrates on the effective presentation of poetry; who helps with materials, language, and background to build an understanding of literature of the past; and who strives for varied methods of teaching literature.

Aural Appreciation of Literature

Read aloud to your classes! I believe that, for example, James Thurber's *The Night the Bed Fell* would hold any group's interest, and might well open a new avenue of appreciation for Thurber's magnificent humor.

Read the *Legend of Sleepy Hollow.* The class knows the plot, but have they ever really heard the voluptuous description of the dinner at the Van Tassel homestead? Have they ever noticed the action of Braam Bones and Company and how contemporary is their scorn for Ichabod!

Do some choral speaking or verse-choir work with your classes. *The Barrel Organ* by Alfred Noyes, or the *Vision of Sir Launfal* by James Russell Lowell, offer some fine segments for this work.

Read aloud some of Sir William Gilbert's "Bab's Ballads," and some of his brilliant lyrics from the operettas. In contrast to the sonorous lines of *The Barrel Organ* the staccato approach of Gilbert's is refreshing and even irritating.

Other Suggestions

Have some of your class read *Catcher in the Rye* and Booth Tarkington's *Seventeen.* The latter may be a struggle, but the contrast will make a lively discussion.

Develop a comparison of two tellings of one story such as *Idylls of the King* by Tennyson and *The Once and Future King* by T. H. White.

Four of the five boys in Group One enjoy science fiction as their recreational reading. One of the boys said that if your mind can stretch to accept science fiction, it can accept anything, especially poetry.

Another perceptive statement made by Group One was that science teachers should read science fiction and recommend it to their classes.

One of the boys mentioned that, like science fiction, historical fiction should be recommended by the social studies teacher. He felt this would help to put flesh and blood on the persons met through history.

For lively debate and warm discussion, I suggest you ask your students to compare some rather unlikely combinations of characters. For a start try: Hester Prynne and Jane Eyre; Holden Caulfield and Huckleberry Finn; Uncas and Gunga Din; Sydney Carton and Hamlet.

For stretching the mind, try some literary nonfiction. I suggest excerpts from Franklin's *Autobiography;* The Federalist Papers; Bancroft's *History of the United States;* any speeches of Winston Churchill, Daniel Webster or George Washington.

Conclusion

In order to build lifetime reading hab-

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its and attitudes through literature, one should first identify the habits and attitudes to be developed. I have shown several approaches which I believe to be helpful in this development.

The most important factor of all is a point made by Dr. Painter. I paraphrase it thus: The teacher who has read widely in old and new literature, and can guide young people to books related to their interests, is the key.

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2. In Secondary Schools

a. Impact of Reading on the Personal Development of Young People

DAVID H. RUSSELL

The International Reading Association is concerned with the improvement of reading instruction. The teacher of English in secondary schools, in contrast, often works primarily with English and American literature organized historically or in thematic units. Somehow or other a bridge must be built between these two goals and activities. One means of fraternization or unification is our concern today with the impact of reading on young people. It is not enough for the elementary teacher to develop efficient word-attack skills or the English teacher to concentrate on the interpretation of figurative language. The teacher of reading is concerned with interpretation and the teacher of English develops specific reading skills. The area of common concern lies in the region of the interpretation of the impact of reading. It is at these levels that an alliance between the reading approach and the literature approach can be effected.

Five Levels of Reading

This reciprocity can be achieved for the maximum development of young people if we review the fact that we read at five levels:

(1) At the first level we are largely concerned with the sounds of words and letters. In some school situations children are encouraged in word calling or "barking at words" without much meaning attached.

(2) At the second level we read casually for a general impression as the pupil sees what the book is about or the business man dozes over his evening newspaper. Such scanning may be useful as a preliminary device or it may leave no trace.

(3) At the third level we read for literal comprehension. We get the facts or we follow explicit directions. The children fill in the workbook blanks and

the high school students answer the questions on the plot of the novel. This type of literal comprehension is most used in schools and most studied in research. Such reading may have many positive values for the child finding some facts on Africa or the suburbanite engaged in a weekend "do-it-yourself" project.

(4) At the fourth level we interpret what we read. We go beyond the literal comprehension of the fact or the main idea to read between the lines. We draw some conclusion of our own from the passage—we envisage or predict or infer. Sometimes we reflect on the author's argument—we evaluate or analyze critically. Such reading we can roughly label creative and critical reading. We ordinarily don't do much of this in school but, as we shall see, perhaps we can do more. This and the following level are more complex and subtle.

(5) Occasionally we read at a fifth level—or depth. We go beyond thoughtful analysis, interpretation of literary devices or critical review. At the fifth level reading becomes a stirring personal experience. We recognize a new, important idea in the actions, characters or values described. We feel what Wilson called "the shock of recognition." The impact of the material is such that we see ourselves or others more clearly. In our reading we are changed, a little, as persons.

Most reading, in school and home, is done at the third, associative level and most of the writing and research in the field of reading have been done at the first and third levels. We know a lot about word perception, the teaching of phonics, and ways of developing comprehension of the printed page. Activities at these two levels make many contributions to the individual. There are worthwhile effects of this sort of reading for all people. The young child enjoys his new-found skill of working out new words and the world's work and its week end hobbies involve the use of much factual material to contribute to knowledge and skill. Reading has always been one of our most important resources for gaining knowledge. Granted a modicum of reading skill in the individual, books and libraries are storehouses of information for him. Thus, reading at the third level may have influences on personal development. It may give the twelve-year old increasing skill in making model airplanes or it may help the adolescent acquire some facts about the French Revolution or about adult life.

At the fourth level, we are not so sure of our ground as we are concerning word recognition or literal comprehension. A feature of recent research, however, has been considerable work on critical and creative reading abilities For example, Sochor[1] has edited for the National Council on Research in English a research bulletin entitled *Critical Reading*. In a recent study at the University of California, for a second example, Clark[2] developed twenty-three lessons in reading to predict beyond the given facts and tested some ways of teaching these in the classroom. Both Sochor and Clark found that tests of critical reading and of reading to predict were relatively independent of the usual measures of vocabulary and comprehension. In going from literal comprehension to personal interpretation as in prediction, a reader puts more of himself into his reading. He thinks beyond the line of print. In critical and creative reading the perceptual process is the stimulus to many kinds of thinking—to drawing analogies, to checking a writer's point of view, or to beginning an attack on a personal problem. As suggested below, more work needs doing in exploring this process of thoughtful reaction to an author's ideas.

It is on the fifth level, however, that our knowledge is slightest and our needs are greatest, and so it is with the effects of reading on individuals that this paper is chiefly concerned. Can literature affect the lives of children, adolescents or adults? In the words of Ciardi, can it make him "quietly passionate" about an idea or a cause? Can literature contribute to the self-concept? Can a story about courage fill a boy with courage or help him find himself? Or is this too much to ask, even of great literature? Reading may be useful at all five levels, but somehow, this fifth level of impact seems the most tantalizing and important of all.

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[1] E. Elona Sochor, editor, *Critical Reading: An Introduction*. Bulletin of the National Conference on Research in English. National Council of Teachers of English, 1959.

[2] Charles M. Clark. *Teaching Sixth-Grade Students to Make Predictions from Reading Materials*. Doctoral dissertation, University of California, Berkeley, 1958.

Previous Assumptions

In the past, the teaching of English in the secondary school has been guided by two assumptions, depending in part on the maturity of the students and the personality of the teacher. The first assumption is the scholarly one—that adolescents should study literature as literature. This means not only that youth should know some of the great writers and literary works of our heritage but that they should be able to state why they are great. The approach has embraced, accordingly, an introduction to such fields as literary history and criticism. At its worst this teaching has been a rehashing of the instructor's college notes. At its best, it has opened new worlds to adolescents with superior verbal abilities and language interests. The second assumption, however, is our primary concern today. It is the belief that the study of good literature can influence character and behavior. It goes beyond the enjoyment of stories and poems, typical of good elementary school teaching, to the hypothesis that literature influences lives. We teach literature to add meaning to friendship, loyalty, courage, honesty, justice, faith, truth, and the other lovely words of our language.

In assuming that literature inculcates the virtues, the moral certitudes of our culture, we have followed the beliefs of the ancient Greeks and other philosophers down through the ages. On many occasions, too, good men have testified to the power of literature in their lives as when Luther Burbank declared that his whole life was changed by reading one book, *The Origin of the Species*. But such testimony, especially from literary people, does not constitute evidence in the scientific sense. What happened to Housman or de la Mare or Vachel Lindsay may not necessarily happen to the typical junior in George Washington High. We may hope that the study of literature will influence youth, but we cannot depend upon the personal affirmation of a few exceptional people. Instead, it is our duty o look at other evidence based on research, incomplete as it is. What, then, are some solid facts about the impact or effects of reading?

Some Possible Effects of Reading

The effects of reading depend upon the kind of reading we do—upon which of the five levels we are operating. At the first two levels of word recognition and casual impression the impact on the reader's personality or life cannot be great. In elementary school or secondary school the child who is barely deciphering material much too difficult for a person of his reading ability has little opportunity to interpret at the fourth level or, at the fifth level, to find materials useful in solving his own problems. Piekarz[3], for example, has shown that children unable to read a passage with relative ease have fewer reactions to it, with many more responses at the literal-meaning level than at the implied-meaning or evaluation levels. Accordingly, the effort we give to the making of skilful, fluent readers is worthwhile in both the elementary and the secondary school. Youth need word-attack skills and ability to follow directions, not because they are going to read only words or follow directions blindly, but so they can go into the meanings behind the words and, if necessary, to questions about the validity of the directions. Grasp of literal meaning ordinarily comes first. No student can interpret sensory appeal or symbolism if he cannot understand the literal meaning of the passage. This is one argument for occasional use of the "read-to" situation, whether in third grade or tenth grade, but it is also an argument for a sound body of literal comprehension skills as a basis for interpretation and for impact.

But teachers of elementary and of secondary classes can help young people derive both literal meanings and implied meanings. I believe the problem is not "either-or" and that teachers of fourth grade and teachers of secondary English must operate in both orbits. However, it is in the realm of imaginative literature that we usually get to the fourth and fifth levels of reading. It is here that good writing is intrepid in its approach to problems, ingenious in its solution of difficulties, in a way that the child or adolescent cannot achieve by himself. Getting the words right is not enough. It is at these fourth and fifth levels that reading can make its greatest contribution to individual development.

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[3] **Josephine A. Piekarz, "Getting Meaning from Reading," *Elementary School Journal*, 56:303-309, March, 1956.**

Fortunately, we have some research evidence beginning to be accumulated about reading at the fourth level of interpretation of printed materials. The effects, of course, will depend upon how the reader interprets.

a. Most children do not seem to respond to some of the commoner literary devices such as metaphor or personification before they are in their teens.

b. Children's interpretations are influenced by their attitudes and expectancies toward what they are reading, by their previous "set" in the reading situation.

c. When asked to respond to short stories, adolescents give interpretational reactions as a dominant type of response; other categories of response, in order, are narrational, associational, self-involvement, literary judgments.

d. Responses to a piece of literature are largely an individual matter. Children and adolescents with different experiences, personalities, and needs see different things in the same character, story, or poem—and one interpretation may be just as "true" or "honest" as the other. Consequently, teachers of reading and literature should beware of looking for the one "correct" interpretation.

e. With adolescents, literary judgments and emotional involvements vary inversely. In other words, children and adolescents tend to suspend objectivity when emotionally involved. Conversely, if we emphasize objective judgment, we may cut down emotional response.

f. The most common emotional involvements of adolescents in fiction seem to be "happiness binding" (the desire for a happy ending) and insistence upon certainty in interpretation.

Perhaps these half-dozen samples of findings are enough to show that we are beginning to accumulate some research evidence about some of the psychological factors involved in interpretation, whether it is a good story in a third reader, a chapter or poem in a high school anthology, or an individual example of an author's work.

The Impact of Reading

Unfortunately, evidence about reading having an impact on lives is largely confined to anecdote and to case studies. Some of you remember a book, story or poem that greatly affected you. MacLeish has said that "A poem must not mean, but be." Proust has written, "Every reader reads himself. The writer's work is merely a kind of optical instrument that makes it possible for the reader to discern what, without this book, he could perhaps have never seen in himself." But we and our students are not MacLeishes or Prousts and we have trouble translating such insights into classroom practices. Elsewhere I have summarized the research on the impact of reading[4] and shown that effects depend upon the characteristics of the individual doing the reading, the content of the materials read, and the total situation in which the reading is done. Studies by Smith, Weingarten, and others have shown possible influences on values and behavior. The process of bibliotherapy as used with individuals with personality difficulties may have some lessons for us here in work with more normal adolescents. Rather than trying to quote you the ten or fifteen researches that give some evidence of the effects of reading, I should like to proceed with a few examples of what can be done in ordinary classroom situations.

Some Practical Suggestions

A few lucky young people make private discoveries of the world of literature, but most children need to be helped in their explorations by the understanding parent and teacher. For generations parents and teachers have made an honest effort to go beyond the surface facts or literal ideas of a selection to some of the important, underlying ideas because they would have children or youth greatly influenced by literature. Teachers especially can be aware of the many different potentialities of the reading process corresponding, in part, to the five levels described above. Reading *may* bring at least eight kinds of results:

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[4] David H. Russell, "Some Research on the Impact of Reading," *English Journal*, 47:398-413, October, 1958.

Skill and Understanding	Acquisition of new skills
	Increase of worthwhile information
	Knowledge of how to find out more
Interpretation	Development of interests and appreciation
	Improvement of problem-solving and critical thinking
Impact	Evolution of social and personal insights
	Understanding of fundamental values
	Changes in behavior and personality

The list is hypothetical and formidable, but teachers should not stop short at the end of the first three possibilities described as literal understanding. Let me illustrate something of the last two areas because they are the most difficult. The materials I use are deliberately taken from popular basal readers and anthologies. You don't have to go to a highly selected individual piece of literature to get literary or human values. In fact, above second readers at least, most selections are put in reading materials for class use just because they have some underlying ideas and may illustrate important values.

Take for example the little poem, "Bird Talk" found in a basal third reader. Now you could teach this poem at the level, here are birds chattering together and this is what they say. Or by question and discussion you can lead the group to see that our perceptions depend upon our point of view. Birds see things in bird-ways and each of us see things in our own individual way. You might stop with this important bit of psychology. Finally, some children might be led to the climactic idea expressed elsewhere by Robert Burns

O wad some power the giftie gie us
To see oursels as others see us!

Because this is a third-grade poem, of course the children should do something about it besides discussing it. Perhaps they will write other poems, as one class did, from the point of view of other animals. "Think—said the rabbit,"! or "Think, said the horse," etc. Or perhaps they might write, as another group did, "How I see myself and how some other person (mother, friend) sees me." These last were personal documents to be read only by the teacher.

Or at the secondary school level take the Edwin Arlington Robinson poem "Richard Cory" found in some anthologies. The poem starts:

Whenever Richard Cory went downtown,
  We people on the pavement looked at him;
He was a gentleman from sole to crown,
  Clean favored and imperially slim.

One way to use this poem is to postpone discussion. Instead, let the students hear the poem a couple of times and then write what they think is its theme. The reactions of one group of students to this ambiguous poem varied considerably. In response to the question about its main idea one student said, "The personal problems of Richard Cory," another, "Money is not everything"; another, "contrast between rich and poor"; and still another, "All that looks perfect may not be so; deceptiveness of appearances." Here were young people reaching for the truth, each in his own way, and who is to say which answer is "correct." Perhaps, all of them deserve further discussion, writing, and searches for related literary materials.

This poem may be a bit of a shocker to the junior high school student who is "happiness bound," who has been accustomed to stories with the Hollywood ending of "all's well." Perhaps this is enough—all does not end well in this world. How would you do it? Perhaps the group can be encouraged to dig a little deeper, can be helped to understand the behavior, first of the townspeople, and then of Richard Cory himself. Here is a piece of literature whose ambiguity can stimulate discussion and writing. Thus the group moves away from the black-and-white of the Westerns and much cheap fiction to a study of some of the mixed motives and human conflicts found in all of us. Then they are on the way to some of the self insight and social insights which literature can give.

We have evidence that teen-agers want to grapple with some of these problems. For example, one English teacher in a California high school collected the opinions of an "average" ninth grade about the books labelled "teen-age books" in their school library. Here are some of the comments (these are all quotations):

1. I'd like more realism, not so much fairy stuff, with phony living happily ever after.
2. Books which present the ordinary teenager and his problems, so we can see how some are solved.
3. Teen-agers cuss and know cuss words, but the books I read sound as if they were written for ten-year-olds.
4. I'd like a book which would show how hard it is for a high school girl to get to know the boy she likes. Parents always tell you that you should go with someone else.
5. A book which shows us what life is like when you grow up.
6. Most teen-age books are too childish and not real enough. Most of them sound like a little 8- or 9-year old wrote them.
7. Authors must think that teen-agers are awfully innocent.
8. Life isn't like what you find in books. Life is hard and people are cruel and don't think of others. It's dog eat dog, and an eye for an eye, and a tooth for a tooth. (From a boy in an underprivileged family.)

Here, then, are interpretations by young adolescents not of one poem or story, but of the books labelled as written for teenagers and usually found in high school libraries. You have noted that a few students found these books satisfying and realistic, that others regarded them as pap and fantasy. In the reactions there are, perhaps, some implications for the content of what we ask young adolescents to read. Their books should deal somehow with situations which seem important to them; the books' problems should be their problems.

I have used poems for my practical examples because they are short. You have other poems, and other stories and plays which mean a lot to you at the fourth and fifth levels of reading and which, accordingly, can be shared with young people. These may be a simple story in a primer about a family, a tale of heroism, or a well-known piece of literature. Whatever it is, teach it in depth. Give it time for thought.

To summarize what I am saying, perhaps I have been suggesting that secondary teachers can learn from elementary teachers, and elementary teachers can learn from secondary people. In the past, the elementary school has been strong on teaching reading skills; in secondary schools, some of our best teaching has been in literature. Accordingly, secondary teachers can learn from elementary people ways of teaching reading skills—not just word recognition or comprehension, but how to read a newspaper, how to handle a science chapter, how to study a short story, how to attack a play or a novel. Conversely, an elementary teacher can adopt more of the techniques of a good secondary teacher of literature. The teacher of the third or the sixth grade can assume that some reading is to be done in depth —children can be aided in the interpretation of character and in discovering social and spiritual values. Thus in years ahead, successful procedures in each part of the school system can be applied at the other level.

For three hundred years now, since the days of the *New England Primer,* some people have believed that reading can contribute to the virtuous life. Probably they are right, but we all have to work on it.

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2. Stimulating Student Reading: The Paperback as a Cool Medium Afloat in a Sea of Hot and Cold Media

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IN THE 1930's, the first gentle breeze of the wind of change wafted its way through the publishing world. That world was never to be the same again. Today that feathery puff has swirled into a forceful tornado, the impact of which is stirring up the educational world—changing the reading habits of millions of small children, teenagers, college students, mature adults, and the teaching habits of thousands of educators throughout the world. It is a dynamic medium, a "mighty mite," a "neat little thing," as Vladimir Nabokov puts it.

To hear that paperback books are being sold to the public at the rate of over a million per working day should be music to the reading teacher's ears. An illiterate nation does not buy books at that rate. Somebody must be reading them. The question arises, however, as to why paperbacks appeal to adults and students alike?

For part of the answer, one must be indebted to Marshall McCluhan and his most recent, significant, vastly illuminating book about man in the age of electric technology: *Understanding Media: The Extensions of Man.*[1] This book contains more provocative ideas per square inch than any other book I have had the pleasure to read in many years. Briefly, McCluhan's thesis is that "the medium is the message," regardless of content. A medium is an extension of ourselves, and each new medium has consequences—personal and social—for us. A new scale is introduced. "The 'message' of any medium or technology," says McCluhan, "is the change of scale or pace or pattern that it introduces into human affairs."[2] Examples that he cites are the railway, the electric light, the written word, the printed word, money (the poor man's credit card), ads (keeping upset with the Joneses), the telephone (sounding brass or tinkling symbol?) and many others, including the automoble, which he calls the mechanical bride.

There are both "hot media" and "cold media." A hot medium extends one sense in high definition, the state of being well filled with data. A cold medium is "low definition" containing less data and demanding that the listener fill in more information. Photographs are hot, while cartoons are cold. The hieroglyph is cooler than the phonetic alphabet. "Any hot medium allows of less participation than a cool one," McCluhan writes, "as a lecture makes for less participation than a seminar, and a book for less than a dialogue."[3]

The phenomenon that McCluhan

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[1] McCluhan, Marshall, *Understanding Media: The Extensions of Man* (New York, McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1964; McGraw-Hill Paperback Edition, 1965, with a new, special introduction for the paperback version).

[2] *Ibid.*, p. 8.

[3] *Ibid.*, p. 23.

makes us aware of is deceptively simple and highly important. Each medium transmits a different message to the participant, regardless of content. *The medium is the message.*[4] When one thinks of the implications of this statement, he begins to understand why students will attend to a television lesson in a classroom, yet flood the room with spitballs if a certain teacher delivers *the identical content* as a lecture before the class. The overhead projector becomes a much more effective teaching device than the old-fashioned blackboard—colder, perhaps. Students believe that they have read *The Hunchback of Notre Dame* because they were deeply involved in the cooler medium of the cartoon presentation in a classic comic. They can see the movie, then read the book with richer enjoyment because the two media transmit different messages to them about essentially the same story.

The important point for our purpose is that we can sense the message of each medium and use it for better teaching. Let us consider two media that transmit different messages to students—the hardcover book and the paperback. The hardcover is to the student a durable, heavy, old-fashioned medium. The paperback is light, up-to-date, appealing. *Hardcover* is texty, drab, adult, bulky, slow-moving, permanent. *Paperback* is young, colorful, shorter, spirited, temporary. It makes little difference that *Robinson Crusoe* appears in both forms with the identical words in each version. The paperback has a more modern message. This phenomenon shakes our prejudices and jostles our traditional thinking. It gives some conservative librarians nightmares, forcing fast, inventive rationalizations to support a continued avoidance of the paperback.

McCluhan deals briefly with the paperback in his book. For him it is "the book in 'cool' version."[5] It is a "tactile, rather than a visual, package." It induces, as does the mosaic TV image, depth involvement on the part of the reader. "The paperback itself has become a vast mosaic world in depth," he writes, "expressive of the changed sense-life of Americans. . . ."

I would like to indicate various ways in which we can think as educators of this medium, and to examine ways in which we can relate it to other media to further the cause of better reading with our students.

The Paperback as Textbook

An increasing number of paperback books are being published with supplementary aids included for the benefit of the student. Tests, vocabulary exercises, biographical sketches, critical articles, and teacher's guides are appearing. It is perhaps natural that the paperback would imitate its progenitor in education. At one extreme form, actual hardcover textbooks are published by merely switching to paper covers. At the other extreme, class sets of mass-market paperbacks with no aids used as the basis for study and learning.

Paperbacks as Groupings or Units

Some paperback publishers have begun to market related units of whole works. Groupings of related titles form a teaching system centered around a theme, a topic, a genre, or another focal point. These units form macro-anthologies—not an organization of excerpts but a combination of entire works with a given purpose.

The Paperback as Pony

There is a recent trend to provide "instant learning" for students through substitutes for reading the whole work. We used to call these books *ponies.* Used properly, they offer the student stimulation and enrichment.

The Paperback as Library Book

Librarians should be promoters of books not protectors. It is a sad image that filters through to too many people when one thinks of a librarian as more of a Cerberus than a Prometheus. The "responsive environment," to borrow Omar Moore's phrase, should be the library as well as the classroom—a nice place to visit and live for a while. It should be a pleasure dome for restless readers, a cornucopia spewing forth vicarious delights for the searching eyes and curious minds of students. Yet, alas, it is too often hardcover walls towering formidably over the student, row upon row, august, dignified, embalmed in sturdy second bindings that rebound from the shelves, images of dimness and dullness, neat, uninviting, drab, dreary, dismal. What an opportunity the paperback offers to the imaginative librarian!

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[4] *Ibid.,* pp. 7-21.
[5] *Ibid.,* p. 326.

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There are those dedicated librarians that make up the vast majority in the field—courageous librarians who resist the censors and defend the freedom to read, who do everything in their power to further the cause of good reading in the schools and libraries throughout the country. These are the ones who encourage the reluctant reader and challenge the gifted child. These are also the book-lenders who see the potential of the appealing paperback and see that students get books into their hands. Those who love readers as well as reading pass on their enthusiasm to students.

It is a fallacy in the thinking of even some of the most competent librarians, however, to view the library as a compartment or room separate from the rest of the school. The library can be fluid and far-reaching in the educational system. Here the paperback can serve the library well by helping the library to become like a benevolent octopus. Every classroom can have a library of its own, an offshoot of the central library.

Such availability has a dramatic, stimulating impact on student reading behavior. I have observed in Middlesex Junior High School in Darien, Connecticut the effects of such a system.[6] Three years ago I established a 350 volume classroom library. No student was required, during the first year, to read a book from it. It existed and was available to 117 students if they wished to use it. These students read an average of more than three books from the library during that year. Seventy-five to 80 per cent of these students had a book checked out from this library at any given time. They liked the absence of a rigid time limit, the daily exposure to the library where they could browse and discuss the books with others, and the chance to get a popular book from it. This appeal has lasted, and the library continues to be used extensively.

Paperback as a Triple Threat (the Fair, the Club, the Store)

Three effective ways of stimulating reading in the schools are through book fairs, book clubs, and book stores. Each form of availability has a slightly different message for the student. The paperback store is a continuing operation, a place to browse as one chooses and to find occasionally an appealing book. The book club has a tribal image and appeals to one's need to belong to the group. It has a regular frequency when the monthly information sheet is distributed and certain books are emphasized as attractive. The procedure of ordering books and receiving them through the mail offers a regular, Christmas-like atmosphere to the student in addition to making him feel like a businessman checking the catalogue and selecting his wares for the month. The book fair has a carnival atmosphere about it, a feeling of a special occasion, where books take on a different appearance than they have as one passes them at the corner drugstore.

Paperbacks and Other Media

The potential combinations of paperbacks with other media are exciting to contemplate. They fire the imagination of the creative teacher and provide a wide variety of possibilities for research and implementation. Think, for example, of how effective records and tapes related to specific books could motivate and illuminate these books for the reluctant reader. Visual representations through slides, photographs, filmstrips, overhead projectuals, paintings, films, and other visual media can be developed to enrich the reading experiences of students. Certainly television has been used and will be used as a powerful medium in this respect.

Print should continue to be our major concern. Man cannot cope with the modern world as effectively without the skill of reading words. This is obvious. I suggest, however, that what is not obvious to educators is the tremendous potential of many other media to enrich the learning experience—to amplify the written words and offer perspectives to writing that motivate the reader and deepen his understanding. To use these media skillfully, we must understand them ourselves, not ignore them.

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[6] The entire experiment is described in the article, "The Stimulation of Reading Through Paperback Books: The Classroom Library," by David Sohn and Butman, Alexander; Reis, Donald, and Sohn, David A., editors, *Paperbacks in the Schools* (New York, Bantam Books, 1963), pp. 23-38.

Paperbacks as Lifetime Reading

Vice President Humphrey has suggested that each boy and girl in America should have a small library. "He ought to start out in his youth so that he'll build it in his adulthood. Libraries ought not just to be public; they should be private." Developing the thought that "a love of books, as great as, amongst our young people, the love of an automobile," should be encouraged, he stated, "if you make your paperbacks as readily accessible to students as the cigarette manufacturers do their products, you would be surprised how many more students read books."[7]

If good reading is constantly available, students will read.

Conclusion:

It is a swift, shrinking world we live in. Technology is changing the tempo of our lives rapidly, almost imperceptibly. Education is exploding with new ideas, new techniques, new media. It is possible for us to continue to take our captive audiences along the well-worn paths and ruts of traditional teaching. Many students will be sharp enough to endure us and rise above our cliché-ridden classrooms. They will accept and understand their real world in spite of us.

But what a waste of time and energy if we reject the opportunities for understanding that new technologies offer us for sparking the educational process! I have concentrated on the paperback as a dynamic medium for the reading teacher. Its message is powerful, as are the messages of all the new media for the reading teacher.

It is a question of whether we should sit idly by like Miniver Cheevy, gnashing our teeth, true children of scorn, yearning for the peaceful days of McGuffey and Company, or whether we will accept the difficult challenge of understanding media with their complex messages, the rich, varied choices they offer us. To accept the challenge is to cast off blinders that have narrowed our vision and shaped our thinking and teaching.

The reading teacher, in fact, might well look at himself as a modern Ulysses—"Strong in will to strive, to seek, to find and not to yield."[8] In his search he may well find the "hell of a good universe next door" that E. E. Cummings describes.[9] As Cummings said, "Let's go."

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[7] Vice President Hubert Humphrey made the quoted remarks in a speech to the *Washington Post* Book and Author Luncheon, January 14, 1965.

[8] Tennyson, Alfred Lord, "Ulysses."

[9] Cummings, E. E., "pity this busy monster, manunkind," from Cummings, E. E., *Poems 1923-1954* (New York, Harcourt, Brace and World, Inc., 1944).

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b. The Influence of Personal Factors on the Reading Development of Young People 82

RUTH STRANG

Personal factors really cannot be separated from social and environmental conditions, for reading development is the resultant of interaction between inner growth potential and home, school, community, and world conditions. The effective reader has an extensive background of experiences which he uses to interpret what he reads. College students who had a common background of experience gave similar interpretations of excerpts from fiction; those whose experiences were unique and specific to them "reacted individualistically to the reading matter."[1] The effective reader "is interested in people, places, and problems outside his own sphere of life . . . engages in activities requiring a high degree of communicative skill . . . and is interested in the search for a better life and a better society."[2]

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[1] Lee O. Thayer and N. H. Prenko, "Some Psychological Factors in the Reading of Fiction," *Journal of Genetic Psychology*, XCIII (September, 1958), pp. 113-117.

More attention has been given to personality characteristics related to failure in reading than to positive factors related to reading development. Most frequently mentioned are fear, tension, a withdrawal of effort, lack of sustained attention, antagonisms to school, and a general lack of emotional and social responsiveness.

Similarly, clusters or patterns of traits are related to reading development. Hill[3] found that the University of Iowa freshmen who scored at or below the 15 percentile on the *University of Iowa Vocabulary Test,* a word analysis test, and subtests of the *Iowa Every-Pupil Basic Skills* showed the following characteristics:

Above average scores (verbal IQ 99; nonverbal 103) on the Lorge-Thorndike intelligence tests
Strongly masculine interests, and a tendency to identify with the father
Disregard for books
Hostility toward others.

The students who scored at the 35 percentile or above showed the opposite characteristics:

Above average rating in intelligence
Somewhat feminine interests, and a tendency to identify with the mother
Pride in owning books
Warm regard for others.

Various ways have been employed to study the relation between personal factors and reading. Early attempts to establish a one-to-one relation between specific factors such as certain visual defects or personality traits have been unrewarding. More significant are the studies of clusters or patterns of factors related to unsuccessful readers. Still more in accord with a dynamic theory of reading are the clinical studies that take into account many subtle interrelated factors within the individual and his environment. The clinical studies also more often take a genetic approach to the problem, either reaching back toward the roots of the reading difficulty or making a truly developmental study of individuals from their early years.

Statements and questions about personal factors in reading development have been used as a Diagnostic Reading Inventory.[4] Among the 285 items are inquiries regarding present mastery of various reading skills, feelings about reading ability, need for improvement, study habits, general physical conditions, vision, motivation, interest in reading, and reading likes and dislikes, etc. The Inventory has stimulated such typically subjective responses as these:

"Words I don't know, I don't like."

"I comprehend slowly when reading swiftly."

Tried out with a limited number of college students, "statements with emotional or attitudinal content have been shown to predict measured reading ability."[5] "Item analysis has provided a set of self-descriptive statements which predict measured reading ability about as well as mental ability tests." The DRI is a rough attempt to quantify a self-appraisal: :

"This is how I see my reading self."

Physical Factors

When we consider personal factors that affect reading, we think at once of the basic importance of being able to see and hear. Most children learn to read by identifying letter sounds in words, and by associating the printed symbol with the sound or with the object, picture, or the action which the word represents. Helen M. Robinson has pointed out that the influence of visual factors on reading development is difficult to ascertain because a single factor may affect reading only in combination with other factors and because instruments for detecting visual difficulties related to reading have not yet been devised or applied to this problem.

Endocrine disorders, especially hypothyroidism, have been reported to be associated with failure in reading.[6] Hypothyroidism characteristically results in lack of effort, fatigue, and underachievement. Treating endocrine disorders is a complicated medical problem not within the province of the reading specialist or teacher. The same caution applies to other kinds of medication given to stimulate learning.

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[2] Mildred C. Letton, "Characteristics of Effective Readers in the High School and Junior College," in Helen M. Robinson (compiler and editor), *Reading Instruction in Various Patterns of Grouping,* Proceedings of the Annual Conference on Reading, University of Chicago, 1959, Vol. XXI, p. 13. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, December, 1959.

[3] Walter R. Hill, "Factors Associated with Comprehension Deficiencies of College Readers," *Journal of Developmental Reading,* III (Winter, 1960), pp. 84-93.

[4] Alton V. Raygor, Forrest L. Vance, and Donna Adcock, "The Diagnosis and Treatment of College Reading Difficulties Using Patterns of Symptomatic Statements," *Journal of Developmental Reading,* III (Autumn, 1959), pp. 3-10.

[5] *Ibid.,* p. 10.

Intelligence

Reading requires abstract verbal ability or intelligence because it is a process of translating various kinds of sensory perceptions into meaning. When the child is in the beginning stages, making simple associations between printed words and spoken words or pictures, general intelligence is not such an important factor. But as soon as the individual begins to read sentences for their meaning, reasoning enters in.

Mentally retarded children can be taught to read up to a certain level. At the usual age of school entrance, they have too little mental ability to do more than make a simple kind of association. By the time they are in their teens, they may have made sufficient mental growth to succeed where previously they had failed. We have case studies of individuals with carefully determined IQ's as low as 50 who, in their teens, learned to read third- and fourth-grade books after intensive instruction in reading signs and directions and intensive drill on applied phonics. One such boy learned to read well enough to get and hold a job at a time when many college graduates were out of work.

It is difficult to estimate the reading potential of retarded readers of high school age. The same underlying factors that depress their reading performance may also lower their intelligence test scores. The development record of the test results of retarded readers in high school often show a relative decrease in their intelligence and achievement scores as they move through the grades, increasingly deficient in reading ability.

Little can be learned from a single intelligence test score; an analysis of the individual's pattern of responses on the subtests yields more insight into his reading potential.[7] The most outstanding single feature of the Wechsler profile of unsuccessful readers is the higher score on the performance as compared with the verbal part of the scale. Among the performance subtests, picture arrangements scores are usually high.[8] With the performance group, the *Digit Symbol* is usually the lowest score. This subtest requires sustained attention, which may be disturbed by anxiety. Unsuccessful readers also tend to do poorly on *Arithmetic*, *Digit Span*, and *Information*, all of which most closely resemble classroom situations. These subtests identify difficulties without isolating causes; the unsuccessful reader's superiority in *Performance* scores over *Verbal* scores "may be due to an inherent lack of verbal ability, or to an interference with verbal ability due to repressions, or simply failure to learn to read."[9] Emotional disturbance may either depress or stimulate word learning.The unsuccessful reader may achieve a superior vocabulary score, through using intellectual knowledge as a defense against the "feared unknown."

Tests of listening comprehension may also indicate reading potential, if the individual's listening comprehension is definitely superior to his reading comprehension.

Recognizing the many pitfalls in test interpretation,[10] we should not take a defeatist attitude toward a low reported IQ. Instead, we should give each individual the best possible instruction under the most favorable conditions and see what improvement he actually makes. Performance under favorable conditions is likely to be the best predicator of future reading achievement.

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[6] Thomas H. Eames, "The Effect of Endocrine Disorders on Reading," *The Reading Teacher*, XII (April, 1959), pp. 263-265.

[7] H. F. Burks and P. Bruce, "The Characteristics of Poor and Good Readers as Disclosed by the Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, XLVI (December, 1955), pp. 488-493.

[8] David Wechsler, *The Measurement and Appraisal of Adult Intelligence* (fourth edition). Baltimore: The Williams and Wilkens Co.

[9] E. Ellis Graham, "W-B and WISC Scattergrams of Unsuccessful Readers," *Journal of Consulting Psychology*, XVI (August, 1952), p. 269.

[10] January, 1960, issue, *Journal of the National Association of Women Deans and Counselors*, Vol. XXIII, No. 2, pp. 52-77.

Emotional Factors

In school and college classes and in reading clinics we see many students who have no physical defects and who have average or superior intelligence who are falling below their optimum reading achievement. This discrepancy between capacity and performance can be traced to various personal-social factors. Armstrong concluded, from his study of twenty-five elementary and high school classes in Edmonton, Alberta, Canada, that "symptoms of personal maladjustment and inability to make satisfactory reading gains do have a remarkable coincidence. It is safe to say that either personal factors interfere with satisfactory reading growth, or the inability to make adequate gains caused dissatisfaction and discouragement."[11] Actually it is not either-or. Reading and emotional difficulties are both parts of a dynamic personality pattern.

Many subtle psychological factors are involved in reading development. As Gardner Murphy said, "We begin to see the role of drives, needs, fears, and antagonisms reflecting themselves in the way in which the world is perceived, recalled, understood, and imagined."[12] The reader may set up "perceptual defenses" against visual material that is threatening or disturbing. This is one explanation of why some retarded readers refuse to read or in devious ways evade reading. According to other clinical psychologists and psychiatrists, memory, perception, attention, and the powers of concentration, judgment, and reasoning may be impaired by acute anxiety.[13] Because of the recognized social importance of reading, failure to master it often arouses greater anxiety and causes deeper frustration than failure in other lines of endeavor. Too intense anxiety disrupts learning, while a certain amount of tension is necessary for learning.

Inner conflicts of many kinds may divert an individual's attention from reading. Wagenheim[14] found that many children who were below average in intelligence and reading achievement reported memories of accidents they had sustained; in a few cases they recalled engaging in acts of physical aggression toward others, about which they felt guilty. On the other hand, the good readers in the same group habitually recalled pleasant memories. Wagenheim interpreted the memories recalled by the poor readers as "projection of physical inadequacy and conflict over aggressive and destructive impulses."[15]

A summary of clinical findings[16] on thirty-five fourth-grade children, nine years of age and of average IQ, who were at least one and a half to two years retarded in reading and exhibited behavioral problems, throws light on the genesis of personal factors related to reading development. These children received intensive psychiatric examination and were given several psychological tests. The following psychoanalytical picture of the poor reader emerged:

1. He cannot permit himself to be curious because he has been punished until he knows that "looking into things is forbidden or dangerous," and therefore one may not "learn to read or read to learn."[17]

2. He cannot mobilize the ego-energy needed in reading.

3. He dare not feel aggression or enter into competition. If he can be helped to discover the personal rewards of learning, he may channel his aggressive drives into constructive avenues.[18] It would seem, then, that as aggressive drives are disciplined away, the impulse to read may correspondingly vanish.

4. He often feels both helpless and unloved. Since he cannot express his feelings openly, he expresses them by refusing to learn to read, or he may find other ways to resist the parent.[19]

5. He cannot afford to enjoy his imagination. When inhibitions, restrictions,

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[11] Robert D. Armstrong, "Reading Success and Personal Growth," *The Reading Teacher*, XII (October, 1958), pp. 21-22.

[12] Gardner Murphy, "Psychology: New Ways to Self Discovery," in *Frontiers of Knowledge: In the Study of Man*, p. 26. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1956.

[13] Paul B. Hannig, "Therapy Through Control," *Education*, LXXX (December, 1959), pp. 201-205.

[14] Lillian Wagenheim, "First Memories of 'Accidents' and Reading Difficulties," *American Journal of Orthopsychiatry*, XXX (January, 1960), pp. 191-195.

[15] *Ibid.*, p. 195.

[16] Jerome S. Silverman, Margaretta W. Fite, and Margaret M. Mosher, "Clinical Findings in Reading Disability Children: Special Cases of Intellectual Inhibition," *American Journal of Orthopsychiatry*, XXIX (April, 1959), pp. 298-314.

[17] *Ibid.*, p. 303.

[18] *Ibid.*, p. 303.

[19] *Ibid.*, p. 303.

the right direction and to create helpful conditions, appropriate material, and skillful instruction—in which the student can demonstrate to himself that he can learn to read better.

Individual's Insight

Individuals are able to gain different degrees of insight into their own reading problems. With encouragement a twelve-year-old, initially most unresponsive boy, volunteered this information about his reading process. The interview went as follows:

Boy: You know, it's funny. Sometimes when I'm reading, there isn't any word there. . . . I put 'em there, like small words, like *we.*

Worker: You stick them in?

B. Yeah. It sounds better to me.

W. When did you first notice this?

B. I just happened to notice it a couple of weeks ago—reading a sentence for the teacher. The teacher don't say nothing. I guess it was too small to bother with. . . .

W. Tell me more.

B. Sometimes when I'm reading I come to the end of the sentence, you know, and instead of stopping for a few seconds, I go right on—without stopping or even noticing it. I keep on reading.

W. That's good to know. You noticed these things yourself?

B. Yeah.

W. What else have you noticed?

B. Let me think. Sometimes I'm reading a word like *there,* and then I come across *their* and I don't see the difference there. They both sound the same to me. So when I write I get all mixed up. . . . And sometimes little words are more troublesome than big ones.

W. Yes, but what can you do?

B. Big words you can get little by little.

W. These are very good observations. Not many people can see their own reading so clearly.

Viewed positively, there are a number of personal factors that may contribute to the reading development of young people. Basic is the student's desire to comprehend accurately what he reads. One retarded reader expressed this attitude by saying: "If I don't understand the main words, there's no use reading it." Any strong interest that requires reading intensifies the desire to read better.

Any special talent may be used to build self-esteem as well as being an incentive to read. For example, a girl who had real dramatic ability was willing to work at her reading in order to be able to try out for a part in a play. Successful participation in the play gave her the recognition and self-confidence she badly needed.

Some students are more mentally alert, and respond to instruction more readily than others. They see errors and incongruities; they find the solution to practical problems. A non-reader who was interested in electronics came out promptly with the answer to a problem posed by an experiment: "There's probably not enough voltage," he said.

Precocity and slowness in reading may be identified early in the child's development. An individual's past performance is apt to give the best prediction of future success in reading. Standardized tests are not enough; they should be supplemented by informal tests and self-appraisal and by the observation and judgment of competent teachers.[28]

A strong motivation to move ahead, to develop one's potential abilities, can be used to strengthen the individual's effort to read more effectively, once he sees the extent to which reading is involved in many aspects of social and vocational success. A "fully self-actualizing person" requires reading as a means of developing his potentialities.

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[28] Rachel S. Sutton, "Variations in Reading Achievement of Selected Children," *Elementary English,* XXXVII (February, 1960), pp. 97-101.

reproaches, and rebuffs have taught the child to be wary of thinking and questioning, he may come to regard letters and words as sources of "curious, frightening, aggressive fantasies and day dreams, and in attempting to keep these repressed from consciousness, may avoid reading.[20]

In this study of clinical cases the basic personality structure of the poor reader appears as helplessly passive, ashamed, afraid to love, unable to commit itself to effort.

An earlier study by Vorhaus of a larger number of clinical cases[21] reported similar personality configurations.

To some children and adolescents, scholastic failure is a way of expressing resentment or venting aggressive impulses. They may direct their hostility toward parents and teachers, or they may be intent on punishing themselves. Scholastic failure may constitute a pattern of passive resistance to learning, which may perpetuate itself into adolescent years once it becomes fixed.[22]

Bias or other aspects of ego-involvement may short-circuit or otherwise influence an individual's comprehension. College students who had a stake in a subject perceived reading differently from those who had different backgrounds and religious and philosophical affiliations. The college students who were emotionally involved in certain material perceived it differently from those who had no bias, or an opposite bias. The journalistic use of purposely ambiguous statements may have the effect of strengthening already existent prejudices.[23]

Among a group of high school students, comprehension and especially interpretation of certain passages were clearly affected by attitudes toward the subject matter.[24]

Any of these personal-social factors may help to determine what a young person reads and how he interprets what he reads. The apparent apathy or resistance to reading that is shown by many high school and college students may arise from unsuccessful or unrewarding early experiences with reading, from present personal relationships that inhibit interest in reading, from other social inhibitions, or from various individual motivations.

The Self-Concept

In working with retarded readers, we find that self-perception seems often to be central to reading development. Roth[25] studied the self-concept of forty-five men and nine women—college freshmen who had enrolled voluntarily in a reading improvement program. Data were obtained from a sentence-completion test and the self-sort and ideal-self-sort (a device for describing the characteristics one thinks he possesses and those to which he aspires). Those who improved and those who did not improve in reading showed wide differences in self-perception. The differences were widest between those who improved and those who dropped out before the course was half over. The investigator concluded that "those who achieve as well as those who do not, do so as a result of the needs of their own self system."[26]

The most effective reader seems to be, in Maslow's words, "the fully self-actualizing child."[27] Reading and the self-concept go together, or overlap, or one is condititional for the other.

The person's concept of himself tends to be persistent and pervasive: it persists over a period of years; it influences much of the person's behavior. In working with reading cases we frequently sense feelings of worthlessness and hopelessness about ourselves, as well as feelings of optimism and hope. These feelings are most important factors in a young person's reading development. Once they are recognized, both teacher and student may do something about them. Generally the teacher's role is to approve each step in

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[20] *Ibid.*, p. 303.

[21] Pauline Vorhaus, "A Manual on the Use of Selected Psychological Tests in Certain Aspects of the Diagnosis of Reading Problems." Unpublished doctoral project, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, 1950.

[22] Paul B. Hennig, *op. cit.*, p. 205.

[23] Gerald Engel, Harriet E. O'Shea, and John H. Mendenhall, "Projective Responses to a News Article: A Study in Aspects of Bias," *Journal of Psychology*, XLVI (October, 1958), pp. 309-317.

[24] Anne McKillop, *The Relationship Between the Reader's Attitude and Certain Types of Reading Response*. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1952.

[25] Robert M. Roth, "The Role of Self-Concept in Achievement," *Journal of Experimental Education*, XXVIII (June, 1959), pp. 265-281.

[26] *Ibid.*, p. 281.

[27] A. H. Maslow, *Motivation and Personality*, Chap. 12, New York: Harper and Brothers, 1954.

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2. Survey of Factors Involved in Building the Lifelong Reading Habit and Practices Which Promote It

KATHERINE E. TORRANT

ONE OF the many stimulating experiences which my role in the field of reading at Newton affords is the opportunity to discuss and observe children's reactions to books as they exchange ideas about them. I was particularly delighted recently, listening to a group of third grade pupils discuss that rare book by E. B. White, *Charlotte's Web*, and give their impressions of the characters. For those unfamiliar with the book, it is a story of a little girl, Fern; Wilbur, the Pig; and Charlotte, the spider, written with humor and wisdom and overtones of mysticism. The children had recreated ideas and impressions which would long be recalled, and might continue to definitely influence their feelings toward their fellow men, *and* their reading habits!

What are the ingredients which *you* believe build permanent lifelong reading habits? I shall be interested to learn whether or not your listings are similar to those which my informal survey and interviews revealed. Results of my investigations regarding ingredients which promote lifetime reading habits reflect ideas of pupils, parents, teachers, librarians, supervisory and other school personnel. Responses pointed up major areas which have a direct influence on stimulating permanent interest and continued use of reading. Although comments, which I processed while investigating the topic, were varied they seem to fall into five categories.

It will not surprise the reader that one of the first and most frequently mentioned categories was the important influence of parents and the home atmosphere, particularly in the early years. Perhaps one of our most important jobs is to devise ways to teach reading and make suggestions on how reading is taught and how more can be done at home.

The second ingredient underscores Paul Woodring's emphatic statement, appearing in the *Saturday Review,* January 1962, in which he declares that "Teaching children to read is the most important single responsibility of the schools." This calls for a well balanced reading program in which, from the very beginning, children are given to understand that reading is a tool for opening up the world of ideas.

The third ingredient, and indeed of major importance, is the teacher! She, with all of her skill, knowledge, insights and understandings, fears and aspirations, is the magic key. Much of what happens in her classroom reflects her basic philosophy of teaching, how broad her definition and use of reading, and how willing she is to be counted among those who make a very real difference in the lives of boys and girls each day and in the days to come. Teachers who reflect Gibran's statement on teaching, "No man can reveal aught but what lies half hidden within you," know the importance of the discovery approach to learning, and the importance of having a pupil gain as much knowledge as possible through *his own mind*. Jerome Bruner has stimulated much interest in this area and made us aware of the fact that children who have a steady diet of this kind of instruction become genuinely absorbed in the subject under study and develop a style of thinking characterized by inquiry.

The fourth area mentioned in the survey referred to materials and the need for a much wider variety of trade books, periodicals, and audio-visual aids which enrich, extend and stimulate understandings far beyond basal texts in every subject field.

While all four of the points previously mentioned are indeed important, the final one is most vital if we are to interest, inspire and retain excellently trained, dedicated teachers. This calls for a school setting in which all school personnel work in harmony for the improvement of the educational program, and where there is freedom to try out new methods and ideas, wisely conceived, to discover whether or not they contribute to dynamic learning and greater achievement.

I should like to leave you with this thought from "Wisdom of the Sands,"[1] which is apropos:

> Therefore I summoned the teachers before me and I said to them: "It is not your task to kill the Man in the children of men, nor to change them into ants trained to the life of the anthill. You shall not fill them with hollow formulas, but with visions that are the portals of creative action."

May you all instill noble visions which will inspire creative action in your students!

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[1] Antoine de Saint-Exupery. "The Wisdom of the Sands," *Elementary English*, 2 (February, 1964).

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4. Promoting Independent Reading in the Secondary School

M. Jerry Weiss

Prologue: La Dolce Vita

When I was a child, in the pre-television era, a man was a man for all that he said and thought, not by the coast-to-coast ratings he received. I thought about many things in those days. Everything I read fed these thoughts. Who could afford to miss the thrilling adventures of the Hardy boys, Captain Marvel, Sergeant York, Bat Man, Knute Rockne, and Buck Rogers?

I read because I found excitement and enjoyment in reading. My parents encouraged me. They weren't frightened by the leagues of clean-minded citizens with their implications of Tarzan and Jane not being married and the possible effects on their chimpanzee Cheeta. Nor did they threaten to take away my copy of Aladdin when someone suggested that the genii in the lamp might well represent a suppressed sexual desire that could play havoc with my external being. They just let me read and play, and watched me swap books with friends.

It was a glorious age of independent reading and play. With our guns and swords in hand, our mother-made capes blowing in the wind, we charged the hills, flew all over our literary-imaginary worlds. We were not birds, not planes; just supermen.

Act I: The Sun Also Rises

Those truly independent reading years were few. Now came the era of academic standards. Teachers told us what to read and when to read. The entire class read the same books at the same time. The entire class, at the given command of EXAMINATION, digested or regurgitated each dissected poem, short story, novel, drama or paragraph from *the* profound texts. No regard was given to what I had read or what reading attitudes and experiences I might bring to any of my classes. THE TEXTS—those dull, listless, lustless passages of science, mathematics, and social studies—were void of the human emotions of conflict and conquest. People were always spoken about; they never spoke. Events had already happened; I was never there. Facts and processes were so; no need for self-discovery. Reading was reduced to the brutal acts of memorization, recitation, examination.

If we failed these, we were given pages of workbooks or questions at the end of the chapter to complete. These reinforced the power of negative thinking. When these activities failed, we were assigned to slower sections or regrouped according to our new general disability level. Interest and motivation hit a new low.

My independent reading was channeled into prescribed reading lists for outside reports which were due the second Friday of every month. These hanky-panky book reports reflected the cool, clean, sterile living of teachers who dedicated themselves to the status quo of ideas and experiences befitting the illiterate group within a given grade on a given ability level of a particular section of homo sapiens. For three years I turned in reports on I MARRIED ADVENTURE and received an A. (Please note: here is *my* scarlet letter.)

Human growth and development stopped or were reduced to multiple choice, true or false, stagnant, stigma scores. We had norms and standards with the normal distribution of deviations and expectancy levels.

As Dickens might say: "It was the best of times, it was the worst of times, it was the age of wisdom, it was the age of foolishness, it was the epoch of belief, it was the epoch of incredulity, it was the spring of hope, it was the winter of despair." In any event, my reading and I suffered.

I, with my love of learning and reading, my once positive attitudes towards books and ideas, my limited creative abilities, fell into dishonor. A decade or so later, research was to rescue me from the bottom quartile of anonymity, and my days of wine and Dewey flourished.

Act II: The Light in the Forest

These experiences as a reader and as a student have taught me that to teach effectively I must know my students, their interests, their abilities, their strengths, their weaknesses. I have learned that each student, through his personal experiences and attitudes, brings to the reading situation a unique self. The most meaningful learning experiences recognize the contributions each reader can make to class assignments. By capitalizing on these interests and abilities, I attempt to help each student to develop in and through his reading experiences.

The most stimulating and challenging method I have found for promoting independent reading, with due recognition of the many levels within a class, is that of "unit" teaching.

Title: Select a topic or problem which is significant to the students and which will appeal to them. The topic is *not* imposed upon them; it grows out of a specific class interest and need. The teacher needs to do much preplanning to make sure there are enough books and references available for students to pursue the topic. Some unit titles might include: "The Wonderful World of Humor;" "Man and Nature;" "Values in Flux."

Initiation: Discussion of movies or television programs might lead to a unit on "The World of Adventure." Film strips, field trips, resource speakers, recordings are just a few of the many ways of stimulating student interest to read further.

Objectives: Ask the students to raise questions which they think must be answered for a thorough understanding of the topic. Questions should have a direct bearing on the subject and should lead to sound conclusions. The teacher should add questions he feels are necessary for developing the unit to the fullest extent.

Assignments: Ask students to volunteer to explore one or more of the questions listed above. Interest groups are then formed. Students and teacher bring materials to class for carrying out the assignment. Each assignment requires reading, writing, speaking, and listening and is designed to make students familiar with all types of reading material. Individual papers or group reports are to be turned in. The papers reflect the students' discussions, findings, and research. Findings are presented orally to the class through a panel discussion, or dramatic readings, or artistic representations (murals, photographs, puppets, etc.)—and comments; or through graphs, charts, diagrams, statistical tables, etc., again with comments. The main purpose of the presentation is to transmit ideas clearly and effectively. Ideas should be carefully supported by facts and examples.

While one group presents its topic, the rest of the class takes notes. Each class member is responsible for the facts and ideas presented. The sharing of information and reading experiences, and the give-and-take which accompanies the process, are valuable learning experiences.

These activities often lead to behavioral changes as well. While students are preparing their reports and projects, they are under constant observation. How do they attack their problems? Do they have initiative, resourcefulness, creativity, dependability? Are their attitudes being changed? Are they finding new interests? What sort of interaction is taking place between and among the students? The teacher, as a resource consultant rather than as an "authority," can focus his attention more closely on problems in learning. Each student, being unique, should feel free to make his contribution to the group. Unless he is interested in the problems and is involved in finding answers, it will be very difficult for him to become a good reader and a critical thinker.

Summation: After all reports are given, the objectives are rechecked and the findings are summarized.

Evaluation: Tests, written reports, oral reports, student notebooks, daily observations of the students, offer valid means of evaluating student growth.

By getting to know each student and by planning thematic units for each class based on a thorough knowledge of the interests and abilities of that specific class, we can provide for the many individual differences within a class and encourage broader and more purposeful independent reading programs.

Act III: Brave New World

We teachers have come to realize the personal nature of reading. We know that effective reading involves much more than the mastery of a set of basic skills.

Certainly we want students to master comprehension and word attack skills, but we also want to develop active readers who assimilate the ideas they discover and learn how to share them with other people, who build new concepts for themselves on the basis of a newly found understanding. Mel Cebulash in Teaneck, N. J., runs a book club at which students discuss current issues and problems as developed in the many books they read. There is real identification here, and Mel has brought a status to reading as he helps students measure the impact of their reading on their lives.

We want critical readers who will weigh different sources, different points of view, and different experiences, who know the difference between fact and opinion and can recognize propaganda devices. Here we can see the necessity for a multitude of reading materials as opposed to a single text. Frank Dippery of Bradford, Pa., has his students rediscover the Westward Movement. To begin such a study, he had the students watch westerns on television and in the movies. He had them read widely so that they could evaluate the accuracy of our mass media.

We also want readers who are selective, who will read variously for many moods and needs. They need the experiences of browsing among books. Frank Crawford of Teaneck, N. J., runs books fairs for parents, teachers, and students. He surrounds them with books and lets them enjoy self-selection, and hopes that they will do so for the rest of their lives. He acquaints teachers and students with such publications as *Studies in the Mass Media* and *Paperbound Books in Print* so that they might know what's available. Austin Fox of Buffalo, N. Y., started a paperback book store. Here students and teachers can browse and choose at their leisure. Teachers capitalize on the availability of such a service and drop names of books and authors that students might find profitable to read.

Furthermore we want students to become sensitive to the nature and values of language. At Defiance, Ohio, we used to ask students to take an abstract word, such as "Beauty." Read widely to see how writers, through the centuries and throughout the world, treat such a subject. The students become sensitive to the individual writer, to his ideas, to his techniques, and to his purposes. In Martinsville, Va., the Board of Education allotted a sum of money to invite writers, including literary critics, to visit classes and to discuss ideas with the students. To be able to participate in such seminars, students were asked to read widely in the works and about the works of the visiting author.

Above all, we want students to find enjoyment in reading. We must realize that students come into our classes with different degrees of readiness, interest, and experience and that teaching must vary accordingly. The range of available material should be broad. It is practically impossible to justify any one book for all students. The paperback revolution has made possible classroom libraries at reasonable cost. John Rouse, formerly of Monmouth Regional High School, told me that his department was given three thousand dollars for paperback books for unit work.

We know that reading instruction is completely successful only when the student has acquired the habit of active continuous reading and can read with ease in all of the subject areas which, by necessity, or choice, he faces.

The reading program is not the product of one teacher, but demands the involvement and resources of the entire faculty on drawing the best possible work out of each student and in helping each student evaluate the impact of reading upon himself.

It is my firm conviction that the old standardized classroom—with its standardized texts, standardized teachers, and standardized students—may provide for educational quantity; but it is the fresh teacher, with a philosophy of experimentation and a genuine love for the individual mind and person who will, ultimately, provide for educational quality.

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C. SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL

1. Some Interests of High School Boys and Girls

PAUL WITTY

THE DEVELOPMENT of a lasting interest in reading should be a concern of all citizens since it is generally conceded that effective participation in democratic life requires efficient and wide reading. Regrettably, however, it has been found that the average adult uses but very little of his actual capacity for rapid silent reading.

There are many factors which contribute to the relatively small amount of reading carried on by adults. It is obvious, of course, that poor reading habits alone do not account entirely or even largely for the above condition. For it has been shown that many adults do not have ready access to public libraries.

Closely associated with the problem of availability of books is interest in reading. Many schools are attempting to develop a more lasting interest in reading among students generally by establishing elementary school libraries and by extending secondary school library facilities. There is also a growing tendency to initiate developmental reading programs designed to satisfy interests and fulfill needs.

In the cultivation of interest in reading, the importance of assuring the development of effective, flexible skills can scarcely be overestimated. For the satisfaction of interests and the fulfillment of needs through reading cannot be realized fully unless the pupil is skilled in reading. To become effective readers pupils need to enjoy the act of reading and the results. They will probably enjoy the act through the acquisition of reading skills which can be applied readily in various situations. And the results of reading will be appreciated when reading is built upon or associated with interests and needs.

There are several ways of studying the interests of youth. One widely employed procedure utilizes the Interest Inventory which contains questions concerning favorite leisure activities, reading experiences, familiarity with places of interest in the community, and related topics. It is suggested that these questions be used informally during an interview. On the basis of responses, areas of interest may be identified, evaluated, and employed as a basis for suggesting related reading experiences.[1]

Recently the writer and his associates have reported a series of studies of the interests of children and youth in which inventories and questionnaires were used to obtain data in 1958-1959.[2] These studies were extended, and included 300 students in each of grades 9 through 12 of the Chicago area.[3] The interests revealed by the students' responses to inquiries were assembled in four areas: television, radio, and movies; recreation and hobbies; reading; and vocational ambitions and educational choices.

In these studies, the appeal of the mass media was unmistakable. Today TV seems to be generally the favorite leisure activity mentioned by youth, although radio still enjoys great popularity. And students continue to go to movies outside the home once or twice each month.

Despite the appeal of the mass media, boys and girls find time to participate in a number of outdoor activities. However, less frequent participation than that reported in earlier studies appears in certain activities. There may be a slight reduction, too, in hobbies involving outdoor participation as compared with earlier times.

The students appear to be somewhat more realistic in their occupational preferences than those studied a decade or more ago. Girls mentioned more frequently than in earlier studies such occupations as teacher, nurse, and secretary. The boys today more often choose engineer and scientist.

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[1] Paul Witty. "The Role of Interest," Chapter VIII in *Development In and Through Reading*, 60th Yearbook, Part I, National Society for the Study of Education. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1961.

[2] Paul Witty, Paul Kinsella, Robert Sizemore, and Ann Coomer. *A Study of the Interests of Children and Youth*, Northwestern University—Office of Education, U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Washington, D. C., 1960.

[3] Paul Witty. "A Study of Pupils' Interests, Grades 9, 10, 11, and 12." *Education*, Vol. LXXXII (Sept., Oct., Nov., 1961).

One of the most significant facts revealed by this study is the very high percentages of both boys and girls who said they planned to attend college. Moreover, even higher percentages of their parents stated that they wanted their children to go to college. Another noteworthy finding was the close relationship between the subjects liked best by the pupils and those in which they received their highest marks.

The results in the field of reading are provocative. Thus, we find that while the mass media consume several hours daily, reading is accorded only a little more than an hour each day.

Most of the books reported fall in the category of fiction. Poetry, essays, and drama were less often read. Stories of famous people were best-liked in the nonfiction group. Popular types of books read by the boys were classified as adventure, mystery, and science fiction. Girls turned more frequently to stories involving romance.

Collectively these data present a picture of youth today surrounded by intriguing mechanical devices and opportunities for "purchased" vicarious recreation. Throughout the studies, the influence of standardizing forces and the power of the ubiquitous mass media were evident.

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C. SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL

1. Language, Linguistics, and the Teaching of Reading

STANLEY B. KEGLER

I SHOULD like to spell out two reasons which I see for the blocks in communication between the linguists on the one hand and reading specialists on the other.

The reading specialists make certain assumptions about language which may or may not be true; the linguists make certain assumptions about the process of learning to read which may or may not be true, and which often are viewed with a jaundiced eye by classroom teachers.

A second reason for blocks in understanding may arise, not only from misunderstanding itself, but from a differing point of view of what language is. As Gleason[1] has suggested, "language has so many interrelationships with various aspects of human life that it can be studied from numerous points of view . . ." all of which are valid. Viewed narrowly, it can deal with the structure of speech or the analysis of the system of language from the point of view of its own structure. In this view it is really linguistics, I should suppose.

But language can be viewed from the viewpoint of the psychologist, the logician or philosopher, the social scientist, the acoustic physicist, and the anthropologist. These latter tend to view language, not as a structure from its own inherent system, but rather as a manifestation of human behavior.

My colleague in the Minnesota Project English Curriculum Development Center, Rodger Leigh Kemp, has pointed out in another context that the second block to understanding may well derive from the fact that most linguists view language as a system or a structure and most reading teachers view language and experience with language, which is what reading is, as a form of behavior. Reading teachers and linguists will not understand each other better, it seems to me, until each understands the point of view, together with the assumption underlying that point of view, from which the other group operates.

Recent statements about language study are not characterized by clarity of expression or purpose. To many, the study of language is restricted to the study of "linguistics"—the structure of the language. To some, the study of language encompasses only the history of our language. Some few—Gleason[2] is a good example—see the study of language as the binding force, the focus, of the entire curriculum in English language study including reading. The study of language, hopefully, will encompass far more than linguistic analysis. Whether it will approach the point which Gleason suggests is difficult to predict. Let me suggest what language study means to me, and then let me indicate why I think this kind of study is important and relevant to the teaching of reading. Language study, to me, includes the study of the origin of language; the ways in which language affects culture and culture affects language; the structure of the language; the history of language; the problems of meaning, reference and proof; major forms within which language operates, which would include a study of linguistic phenomena in the various *genres* of literature and in the various *genres* of persuasive and expository discourse.

Presently, such study is almost nonexistent at any school level. Yet, orderly instruction in the study of the nature and function of the English language has been identified as a problem of prime educational significance by various commissions, organizations, agencies, and committees. The significance of such instruction derives from the importance of the study of language as it reveals the nature of man and illuminates form and conduct of all social situations. One need only examine the nature of our political and social structure to see the importance of an educated and linguistically sophisticated citizenry which must constantly make decisions affecting individual and group actions. I am suggesting that we work to understand the language we speak, not only for academic reasons, but for very real, practical reasons. I am not suggesting here that we study language only to understand its grammar—although good arguments could be made for that assertion—but rather that we study language to better understand ourselves. Whatever the job of the school, however the school views its task in society, whichever its institutional goals—depending on the jargon you prefer—the task as I see it is to help students understand man and his world. What better way to understand man than to study the most human of his creations—language?

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[1] H. A. Gleason, Jr. *An Introduction to Descriptive Linguistics.* New York: Holt (1961), p. 2.

[2] H. A. Gleason, Jr. "What Is English?" *College Composition and Communication,* 124 (October, 1962).

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I am quite certain that each of you has his own definition of the reading process and what it involves. To me it involves *perception* and *reaction,* with all the evaluative processes implied by the term "reaction." What, then, can the study of language do to improve or modify current reading instruction? What relevance does knowledge of our language, its nature and its functions, have for learning to read effectively?

What is suggested by this analysis? The answer the question is to answer it. The student who masters the "800 structure points"—or at least those which make a critical difference in the meaning of what he reads—is likely to be the effective reader.

To replace the disordered and fragmented instruction about language, instruction in the skills of speaking, reading, writing, and listening should proceed *within the context of instruction about language.* If this were effected, language instruction could well provide the core around which the communication skills were taught. Each classroom experience in reading, writing, speaking, and listening would be viewed as another experience with language—another significant opportunity for instruction about language. Let me indicate only a few of the titles of units we have developed at the Minnesota Project English Curriculum Development Center and you will see the implication for secondary school reading instruction more clearly:

Changes in the Meanings of Words
Grammar of Sentences
Syntax: Clues to Meaning
Our System of Writing—Spelling
Language Varieties
The Dictionary
The Nature of Meaning
How We Learned Our Language
The Language of Literature

These units, which represent only a fraction of those under experimentation in classrooms at the moment, run the gamut from grades seven to twelve.

The work of the psycho-linguist, to which I referred earlier, also has its implications for the teaching of reading. The use of the semantic differential scale developed by Osgood, for example, has led to some interesting discoveries. It has been shown rather dramatically that when we teach the word "dog," for example, that the word will have variant meanings for students, depending on previous instruction and experience. This is not startling news to any of you, of course, but what you may not know is that the variety of response is at least partially predictable when other factors are known. In addition, the work of the psychologists in the use of word-pairs has suggested that certain words can trigger, not the meanings of those words, but rather a closely allied word. The implications of this kind of information for what happens when a reader reacts to printed symbols are fascinating.

I would like to suggest one other development in language study in the secondary schools which is of importance to instruction in reading. This development is the renewed attention being given to the study of rhetorical principles at the secondary school level. It is quite apparent that this interest may supply the vehicle by which literature, writing, and language may be welded into an effective language program.

Who would have dared to predict, during the height of World War II, the kind of world we would be living in in 1964? Those who dared were subject to scorn. And who, having lived through the dramatic technological changes of those last two decades would be willing to say what this civilization will be like 25 years hence? Yet, in 25 years, today's senior high school students will be masters of their own houses, and in many cases, our houses, too. How can we prepare them for their job, which Margaret Mead says is to "teach young people to solve unknown problems in unknown ways"?

I submit that the problems will change, that the solutions are unknown. I also submit that the problems will be enmeshed in the language we speak and the verbal symbols we manipulate when we think. What better way to help young people "solve unknown problems in unknown ways" than to aid them in understanding how to manipulate those verbal symbols? This is what language study can do.

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2. Contributions of Linguistics to English Composition

CARL A. LEFEVRE
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THIS PAPER presents the rationale of a basic composition program developed by Helen E. Lefevre and Carl A. Lefevre. This program, designed for students in grades 11 through 14, has proved flexible in practice. In addition to its use at designated grade levels, it has been used successfully with advanced eighth grade pupils in a Chicago suburban school, in workshops for English teachers, and in language arts methods courses. Graduate students (inservice teachers) have adapted parts of the program down to grade one. *Writing by Patterns,* a worktext embodying the program, is published by Alfred A. Knopf, Inc.

Sentences: Unitary Meaning-Bearing Patterns

The program is based on the conviction that the fundamental linguistic structure in writing is the sentence, and that the sentence is best understood when analyzed by pattern. Sentences may appear to be made up of words, but words make sense only by fitting into the total meaning-bearing pattern of a sentence. Precise choice of words does make for exactness and precision; in this sense individual words can be extremely important. But words are always integral parts of sentence patterns. Thus the basic building block of effective writing is the sentence, not the word. Capable readers and writers think in terms of unitary meaning-bearing sentence patterns. Most English sentences are based upon, or are inversions, transformations, or variations of, a few important patterns. Sentence patterning, in this sense, is a major subsystem within the total communication system of the English language.

Developing Linguistic Consciousness

We learn the basic features of our language, including common sentence patterns, before we go to school. But when the language system becomes habitual, automatic, its use soon becomes unconscious. Unless we make an effort to regain linguistic consciousness, we remain largely unconscious of our use of the native language. One aim of the program is to develop linguistic consciousness, with a view to improving composition.

If we ask the average young adult in an English class to describe the structure of a sentence he has written, experience shows that he usually cannot do it. *The beginning writer is not only unconscious of his own language patterns; he is totally unaware of the nearly infinite variety he has never spoken or written.* Standard written English can be made accessible in part by analytical study, but above all by *practice.*

Patterned Drill and Imitation of Models

Concerning the teaching of English, H. A. Gleason, Jr., has said:

> As in teaching a foreign language, the accurate casual control of patterns comes out of specific patterned drill and conscious manipulation.

E. P. J. Corbett has reasserted a traditional principle of composition instruction:

> Our students might very well profit from the ancient discipline of imitation. . . . In adopting imitation as a teaching device, we today can take advantage of what we have learned about the English sentence from structural linguistics and transformational grammar.

We have reached similar conclusions. Our program offers a simplified English grammar based largely upon structural linguistics. *No previous acquaintance with modern grammar is necessary for either student or teacher.* The method requires students to produce their own original sen-

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[9] *Ibid*, p. 27.

tences. The writing practice involves both (1) patterned drill and (2) imitation of models.

Nothing Wrong in Print

The principle of nothing wrong in print is conscientiously observed throughout the program. The student should have only correct standard models to imitate and manipulate, and frequent suggestions for guidance as he writes his own sentences. These materials and these techniques give him positive help in doing correctly the writing that is required of him. The student is expected to learn from whatever errors he does make, and to mature as a writer through becoming conscious of patterning in the language structures he writes.

Of What Value are Sentences out of Context?

For composition, the most important single pattern of the English language is the sentence. A sense of the relationship between content and form should emerge from the student's practice with and manipulation of sentence patterns. This insight can be applied to the *revision* of his writing. The fitness of the relationship between content and form determines the effectiveness of what he has written. He must also consider his choice of words, his idioms, his figures of speech. But only through consciousness of sentence patterns and minor syntactical structures can he achieve the stylistic variety required to create the appropriate movement of a piece of writing. Thus, work with individual sentences does have ramifications that go beyond individual sentences.

Does it Sound Right?

Written sentences are ultimately descended from spoken sentences. *Whether informal or formal, conversational or literary, a good sentence in writing or print must sound right when it is read aloud. It must ring true to the sound of native speech.* Without a strong sense of the sounds and tunes of written language, manipulation of English sentence patterns can lead to awkward and unnatural writing. It is not idle criticism to say that a passage just doesn't sound right; sounding right is a great aim of all writing.

Language: One of the Humanities

The practice provided by this program can become a dry formality without an awareness of the inherent interest and value of language as giving meaning to human experience, whether in science, business, art, or the personal world of the individual. Language is one of the humanities.

Coordination of Reading with Writing

This program can help to make students more appreciative of the variety of language structures in the work of skilled writers; *basic writing practice can also help them in reading comprehension.* It is quite feasible to coordinate writing instruction with reading. A student who has never before spoken or written an inverted sentence, for example, will have difficulty reading one—and *his textbooks are full of inverted sentences.* Poetry, too, presents many inverted sentences. In fact, the sentence patterns of poetry are often a most interesting aspect of poetic style.

Comparative analyses of structural elements can be made on several levels. The student may compare his own writing with a selection from a book, tabulating, for example, the subordinate clauses or verbal groups in both. A full comparative analysis would include simple and compound sentences, inverted and passive patterns, clauses and verbal groups in introductory, medial, and final positions, and other constructions at will.

Comparative analyses can be very useful with advanced students. Given a paragraph from Stevenson, say, they can describe and tabulate its stylistic features in terms of sentence patterns and variations. They can compare his style with theirs in one of their best revised paragraphs. It should be made clear that this activity is not punitive, but designed to help them. They may as well try to write like Stevenson.

Advanced students may also work with patterns not presented for general class practice, such as parallel eliptical constructions, parallel verbal or adjective groups, or various parallel noun groups. One technique is to ask the students to add structures of their own invention to patterns presented by the teacher. This practice supplements general class work on parallelism.

Comparative study of his own style with the style of what he reads is a two-way process for the student: as he becomes increasingly aware of language structure in his reading, his writing becomes more sophisticated; as he becomes more aware of language structure in his writing, his reading becomes more perceptive. An intellectual process is involved. It will help the student if he can develop a competent grasp of the structural description of the English language system which is presented as an integral part of the program.

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C. SENIOR HIGH LEVEL

1. Linguistics and the Teacher of English

JEAN MALMSTROM
Western Michigan University

LANGUAGE is the instrument with which man forms thought and feeling, mood, aspiration, will and act, the instrument by whose means he influences and is influenced, the ultimate and deepest foundation of human society."[1]

Linguistics is the scientific study of language. It is the study of the principles that characterize languages, not the study of any one language. A specialist in linguistics is a linguist. Linguists can perform at least the following five activities:

1. the study of historical change in languages;
2. the description of the structure of languages;
3. the comparison of languages to reveal their mutual relationships;
4. the analysis of languages to define their various dialects;
5. the development of general theories about language, language users, and language learners.

Linguists hold these five truths to be self-evident.

1. Languages are systems of arbitrarily selected symbols by which human beings communicate. These symbols can be either vocal or graphic—that is, either spoken or written. In every civilization the vocal symbol-system has preceded the graphic symbol-system. Men *speak* before they *write*, both in nations and as individuals. Most languages in the world to this day have no writing systems.

2. Languages are always complex, no matter how simple the people who speak them. There are no primitive languages.

3. Languages change as long as people use them for communication. The changes depend on when, where, and how the language is used, and by whom and for what purposes.

4. Languages differ from other languages in pronunciation, vocabulary, and grammar.

5. Languages are sufficient to the societies they serve. Internationally, languages are as important as their native speakers are.

Linguists agree on these fundamental principles, but on not much else. There are many different schools of linguistics, and this variety is cause for joy, not sorrow. Any live field has such vibrant fertility. Linguistics is thoroughly alive.

The Problem

Characteristically, linguists are willing to expound their theories to English teachers, but loathe to relate theory to classroom practice. Many linguists know little and care less about high school English teaching. Those who do care often expect teachers themselves to make the classroom applications. However, English teachers need more than information about linguistics to enable them to "use linguistics" with their students.

This fact was clear to the evaluators of the 1962 summer institutes of the Commission on English of the College Entrance Examination Board. The purpose of these institutes was to upgrade the teaching of high school English. Each institute offered three courses—Literature, Composition, Language—plus a workshop. In the workshop, the teachers tried to produce teaching materials for later use in their classrooms. However, in the fall, the evaluators discovered that the materials the teachers actually did introduce were usually published books and mimeographed Institute materials not intended for use by high school students.[2]

This need for teaching materials is recognized in the U. S. Office of Education English Program, established in 1962 as Project English. Every Center supported by this program is developing material that pays attention to some brand of modern linguistics. There are units on syntax, dictionary study, dialects, the history of English, and language change, for instance. However, while "unit outlines" and "study guides" for teachers are proliferating, the materials for students are usually hastily written and fairly boring.

Next summer, the revised National Defense Education Act will provide more than one hundred institutes for the improvement of English teaching. Inevitably these institutes will be influenced by the 1962 CEEB Institutes and by Project English. Precautions are being taken to avoid their mistakes, but still there seems to be no real conviction that teachers need more than theory if teaching is to be improved.

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[1] Louis Hjelmslev. *Prolegomena to a Theory of Language*, translated by Francis J. Whitfield. Madison: University of Wisconsin, 1961, p. 3.

[2] John C. Gerber. "The 1962 Summer Institutes of the Commission on English: Their Achievement and Promise," PMLA, LXXVIII, No. 4, Part 2 (September 1963), pp. 9-25.

The Achilles heel of any linguistic training program for English teachers is the lack of linguistically oriented textbooks. The assumption that teachers can produce adequate substitutes for textbooks shows ignorance of high school English teaching. There is neither time nor place for high school teachers to create teaching materials for their students.

One of the clichés of modern education is that the textbook is the most powerful single control on the content of instruction. Traditional language textbooks combine old-fashioned grammar with prescriptions on usage. In teachers' manuals and prefaces, the authors of these traditional textbooks often pay lip service to modern linguistic theory. However, in the actual text, this viewpoint is absent or sandwiched in piecemeal. In such books, the language activities are sparse, unimaginative, and unrelated to any real interest of high school students.

Linguistically Oriented Textbooks

The linguistically oriented high school English textbooks are few. Paul Roberts wrote three of them: *Patterns of English, English Sentences,* and *English Syntax.*[3] *Patterns of English* presents English grammar from a structural linguistic viewpoint. *English Sentences* blends structural linguistics, traditional grammar, and transformational grammar. *English Syntax* presents Roberts' 1964 version of transformational-generative grammar in a semi-programed format.

Another important textbook is John Mellon's *A Grammar for English Sentences.*[4] It presents basic principles of transformational-generative grammar supplemented by a few prescriptions on standard English.

There are two linguistically oriented English texts for junior high school, *Discovering Your Language* and *The Uses of Language*[5] by Neil Postman and others. Their viewpoint is structural-linguistic and inductive. Interestingly, *Discovering Your Language* uses the terminology of Charles C. Fries in *Structure of English*, published in 1952.

A different kind of linguistically based high school textbook is *Dialects—U.S.A.,*[6] by Jean Malmstrom and Annabel Ashley. It is suitable for a unit on American English dialects and contains exercises and bibliographies that integrate language, composition, and literature.

A new kind of linguistic textbook has just become available. Its name is *Language in Society.*[7] It recognizes that as knowledge proliferates, new interconnections among its parts constantly appear. The book unites linguistics with literature, psychology, sociology, and pedagogy to illuminate language and how it works in society. *Language in Society* is written in language that high school students can understand and is highlighted by devices to catch and hold their interest. Moreover, it combines the three essential parts of the English program: language, literature, and composition. It uses literature to illustrate linguistic principles and often asks students to write on literary topics. Malmstrom wrote this book to demonstrate how linguistics can be applied in the teaching of high school English.

Summary and Conclusion

Linguistics as a technical discipline is not the concern of either the high school student or his English teacher. Linguistics becomes relevant to high school English teaching only after it has been filtered through the brain of a person of "dual competence." Like the ideal English methods course teacher as defined by the National Council of Teachers of English, this person

> . . . must have mastered the two areas for which he is responsible: the content and the teaching of English.[8]

He should have

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[3] All three books were published by Harcourt, Brace and World, Inc., in 1956, 1962, and 1964 respectively.

[4] Culver, Indiana: Culver Military Academy, 1964.

[5] New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1963 and 1965.

[6] Champaign, Illinois: National Council of Teachers of English, 1963.

[7] New York: Hayden Book Companies, 1965.

[8] William H. Evans and Michael J. Cardone. *Specialized Courses in Methods of Teaching English.* Champaign, Illinois: National Council of Teachers of English, 1964, p. 28.

> . . . unquestioned command of the subject matter with extensive experience in teaching in secondary schools and in working with teachers at this level.[9]

He is the essential middleman between linguistics and the high school English teacher. He is the qualified writer of high school language textbooks.

These middlemen are scarce today. They are probably the most desperately needed catalysts in the history of education.

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[9] *Ibid*, p. 27.

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3. Establishing a Working Relationship Between the Librarian and the Consultant

ORLANDO J. CANALE

"LIBRARIES are the vessels in which the seed corn for the future is stored." So writes Dorothy Canfield Fisher.[1]

This is indeed an apt expression for describing the importance of the modern school library, and a useful statement if we stress the idea of the future, rather than the idea of storage.

Where storage is stressed, the librarian may be considered primarily as a keeper or custodian of books, rather than a highly trained, and skillful resource person. Viewed in this restrictive manner the best of skills may become stifled.

In like manner, the reading consultant, considered primarily on the basis of his teaching commitments, cannot function fully for the improvement of reading in a total program. It would seem better not to think in terms of a single broad function or sphere of responsibility for either the consultant or the librarian. Rather, let them share their ideas, skills, and problems in a joint effort for reading improvement.

The school which employs a consultant and a librarian offers them a unique opportunity for some challenging teamwork as a reading team. Once basic goals are set by the administration and the teachers, dependent upon the particular aspirations and needs of the local school, the reading team may formulate a plan of action.

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[1] Dorothy Canfield Fisher. *The Stronghold of Freedom,* in The Library of Tomorrow, ed. by Emily M. Danton. Chicago: American Library Association, 1939, 22ff.

This plan might include ideas based on a three-fold approach:

1. Ideas a librarian might use to enhance the consultant's understanding of the role of the library in the school program.
2. Ideas the consultant might present for the librarian's understanding of the reading program.
3. Ideas arrived at by the consultant-librarian team for use with the administrators, teachers, and pupils.

Let us consider how the librarian might assist the reading consultant:

1. Reviews on cards might be sent to the consultant for his perusal.
2. Tours of the library might be made with the consultant to explain the mechanics of classification, cataloguing, etc.
3. Interests of the readers in terms of the general circulation might be discussed with the consultant.
4. Educational articles having a bearing on reading might be referred to the consultant.
5. A library news bulletin published by the students with the librarian's guidance might be shared with the consultant.
6. The professional shelf for teachers might include books on reading instruction.

Next, we shall consider how the consultant might assist the high school librarian:

1. A list of advanced readers, and a list of remedial readers might be furnished to the librarian.
2. Copies of individual reading reports and tests might be sent to the librarian.
3. Specially prepared reading materials might be discussed with the librarian.
4. Current trends, tests, and methods of instruction in reading might be shared with the librarian.
5. The consultant might have the librarian observe during reading and testing sessions with individual students.
6. The consultant might act as a guide for the librarian on a tour of the reading center.

Finally let us consider what the consultant and librarian working together might do for the over-all reading program.

1. Meet together regularly and with the administration for short discussions of ideas, problems, and progress.
2. Prepare together a list of books for purchase based on what is known about the abilities and interests of the students.
3. Plan together a reading handbook that would emphasize the idea of a consultant-librarian approach to the problems of reading.
4. Sponsor together, when possible, reading meetings of the local IRA Council in the school library.
5. Invite teachers and FTA members to the joint meetings when feasible.
6. Keep together a bulletin board in the library, devoted to literature and reading.

The use of the preceding suggestions would demand time and patience. Each idea would be evaluated for contribution to the wider and more effective use of the resources of the high school library.

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2. Teacher-Librarian Teamwork in the High School Reading Program

LYDIA A. DUGGINS

A LIBRARY *is a place set aside.* You can go there to have an argument with Plato, do research with Pasteur, try human conscience with Shakespeare, go racing after ideas in research volumes, or just "stop by a snowy wood on a winter's evening" and dream a little with Robert Frost.

A library has special smells, sights, and sounds: of old leather, muted voices, little halos of light over long tables, sunshine streaming—always a little dusty—through windows, a sense of unlimited space, of belonging, and of timelessness. Just holding a book and sitting in a library, protected, assisted, and claimed, has its own justification.

How does it get that way? It starts with librarians and teachers who love, respect, and value books too much to make the library a place for "getting book reports," "doing required reading," "staying after school," or "remedial reading." They want high school students to have a "crush" on books, to find them "real cool man," to "dig" them, and they team up to achieve this goal.

What is a teacher-librarian team? It is two or more people promoting "going steady" between children and books. A team isn't just people swapping ideas or materials. It consists of a group working toward a pre-determined goal. The methods of achieving this goal may and will be worked out as efforts are expended toward achieving it. Concern with this goal and responsibility for achieving it are vital to all members of the team regardless of their specialized functions.

Everybody helps on the teacher-librarian team? It is customary for high school teachers to think of the school librarian as a person who *assists them* in locating and securing reading materials. Rarely do teachers see themselves as contributing to or assisting the librarian. Even when this is done, they see themselves in the role of perfunctory administrators "keeping order," regulating the flow of students to and from the library, or giving lectures on the proper care of books.

An attitude of mutual respect for the contributions and concern for the utilization of special skills is an essential starting point. Such a relationship is established on mutual experiences of a satisfying nature in helping children learn to use books efficiently and to love them well. A teacher must be as concerned about sharing information with the librarian as the librarian is with the teacher. Estimates of children's reading levels, information on their reading tastes and interests, outlines of topics to be studied by a class, curriculum planning by the entire faculty . . . these are some of the areas of cooperative action that facilitate the work of the teacher-librarian team.

Teacher-librarian teams in action demonstrate the effectiveness of cooperative action. At Bunnel High School (Stratford, Conn.) the special teacher of reading finds the librarian indispensable in helping to secure classroom units of materials suitable for high school students ranging widely in intelligence and reading ability. Another high school teacher finds the librarian helpful in the hobby of ancestor tracking and through mutual interest the teacher and librarian lead the students to trace their own family trees. At University High School (Bridgeport, Conn.) it is felt that when teachers and librarians take courses in reading together, the shared background of understandings and skills promotes good teamwork. At North Haven High School (North Haven, Conn.) the librarian delivers books to the teacher's classroom at mere mention of interest in a particular subject or book. At Bedford Junior High School (Westport, Conn.) the supervisor and the librarian pore over reference books as they plan together ways in which the library can serve the school. At Purdy's Elementary School (Westchester, Conn.) the librarian is involved in all aspects of the school program. At Center School (New Haven, Conn.) the librarian helps secure books suitable to gifted readers. The children are a part of the library team at Murray Avenue School (Larchmont, N.Y.). At Middlebrook Junior High School (Trumbull, Conn.) the librarian and teacher present a unit together in the classroom and in the library. In North Salem School District, the community planned with the school to make all books in the public and school library more available to students during the school year and in the summer.

Summary. A library is a place set aside, but it is more. It provides an experience in which teachers, librarians, and community form a team to promote "going steady" between children and books. This teacher-librarian team has mutual goals developed out of shared experiences. Everybody helps on this team, working together, poreing over lists, attending meetings, and studying together in an attitude of mutual respect for contributions, concern for utilization of special skills, and for the fostering of the individual interests of the members. The teacher comes to the librarian and the librarian goes to the classroom. They undertand each other. They enlist the children and the community in the library program. It is a program of action. The books get up and move for and to the students who sit and read with a nice, comfortable feeling.

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C. SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL

1. How the Library Contributes to Students of Different Abilities and Backgrounds

RUTH STRANG

LIBRARIES *make individualized instruction possible.* There are many ways of providing for individual differences. Teachers can individualize instruction while they teach an entire class. Administrators may section pupils horizontally on a given grade level, or vertically by cutting across age levels as in the Joplin plan. Teachers of every subject may subdivide pupils into fluid groups according to reading ability, or reading difficulties, interests, and projects. Publishers put out multi-level material. Finally there is individualized reading, in which each pupil chooses books to read that are suited to him, while the teacher holds individual conferences with other pupils.

Underlying all these methods of individualizing instruction is the contribution made by the library and the librarian. Books should be available throughout the school—in every classroom, in laboratories, study centers and, of course, in the school library. The public library, traveling library, and special libraries extend the possible range of pupils' inquiries and interests. The library should serve also as an instructional materials center where pupils may learn by looking at pictures, filmstrips, and films, as well as by reading books and magazines.

Libraries reward retarded readers. The choice of the right books is crucial for a retarded reader. Giving him a book that is too easy or too difficult, or one that fails to elicit his interest, only confirms his previous impression that "reading is for the birds." Teacher and librarian should suggest several books that the pupil can read independently and with enjoyment, and then leave him free to choose—and free to reject the books that he does not want to read. The teacher should help him to get started in reading and show continuous interest in his progress.

Able students become independent learners. One of the best ways to develop talents is to supply a wealth of reading material. Able pupils welcome the opportunity to take initiative and to learn for themselves. They will set up a reading curriculum for themselves. All they ask is access to the books they want, and an occasional conference with the teacher or librarian.

Reluctant readers can become interested. If reluctant readers are assigned to a library period followed by a discussion period, if they have reasonable freedom of choice, and if the librarian is skillful in introducing books that appeal to them, most of them will respond. These pupils can read but don't, until they discover that reading has personal meaning, use, pleasure, and purpose for them.

Libraries serve many purposes. From the pupil's point of view libraries serve a wide range of purposes. Let us listen to some of the comments made by pupils:

"At times I go into a library to relax."

"I go to the library to read for enjoyment."

"The library has helped me in another way this year: There's a cute girl up there every second period whom I've got to know better."

"There is no more appropriate place to do your studying than the library; it creates a marvelous atmosphere for work."

"I consider the library my sun with all my academic classes orbiting around it. Without it I'd be lost."

"To me, the library has always been a source of amusement, information, and escape from the realistic world."

According to a reading specialist, libraries "bolster the reading program" by teaching pupils how to use their facilities, providing a wealth of books that supplement the texts, extending pupils' interests, and helping them to solve personal problems and find delight in reading.[1]

TV can be an ally of the library. There is evidence that certain TV programs send youngsters to the library for various reasons—to learn more about a certain field, to read the books they have seen dramatized on TV, to answer puzzles and questions presented on quiz programs. One English teacher capitalized on Laurence Olivier's TV performance of *Richard III* as motivation for a week's study of Shakespeare.

Wide reading develops resources of the mind. According to some authorities, young persons with no resources of mind are likely to become delinquent, alcoholic, mentally ill, or to drop out of school. A lifelong habit of using and enjoying books and other printed materials is good insurance against succumbing to the vicissitudes of life.

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[1] Helen Huus, "Libraries Bolster the Reading Program," *The Reading Teacher,* XIV (March, 1961), p. 236.

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C. SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL

1. Skills or Concepts in Second Language Reading

Ralph F. Robinett

A discussion of problems of second language reading as a part of a session centering on the culturally disadvantaged may seem highly relevant or it may seem somewhat tangential, depending on what is included or excluded in one's definition of culture. Without exploring very far the range of meanings assigned to the word *culture,* it soon becomes obvious that rightly or wrongly many of our children whose first language is other than English are considered to be culturally disadvantaged. The problems of such children are manifold. My concern here is, therefore, limited to an analysis of a narrow but fundamental range of problems related to bilingualism and the conflict of languages and alphabetic systems.

A problem commonly identified by remedial reading teachers as acute among the culturally disadvantaged is a poverty of vocabulary and a corresponding poverty of concepts. Though in many cases vocabulary and concepts may go hand in hand and the students may have neither the words nor the concepts, it is necessary to recognize that in many other cases the bilingual student may already have the concepts in his first language but not be able to verbalize them in English.

A second and closely related problem involves the way the non-native English speaker organizes experience in his first language and the conflict of this organization with the way the English language organizes the same or similar experiences. These differences at one extreme are reflected in what are often called false, or deceptive, cognates. In such cases the more common meanings do not overlap in the two languages.

At the other end of the problem of vocabulary correspondence is a variety of situations in which the common meanings of words in the two languages overlap in many cases, but do not overlap in many others. In such cases, the student is not necessarily confounded, but he is often confused. He has to puzzle out the meaning because of the differences in distribution between the meaning in his first language and that in English. At a very simple level, the Spanish speaking student may have to stop and reflect that the word *time* in *What time is it?* refers to the hour and not to the weather.

A third but less often recognized language problem stems from the degree to which a non-English-speaking student lacks automatic control of the grammatical structure of the English language. The student who is not quite sure if milk chocolate is a kind of milk or a kind of chocolate may not be struggling with concepts or vocabulary. He may have had milk for breakfast and chocolate for lunch. He may also know the words *milk* and *chocolate* in English. His problem in understanding the phrase *milk chocolate* may be a problem in English grammar based on his lack of understanding of how English expresses direction of modification.

From cases such as the one mentioned above at least three conclusions may be drawn: (1) the problem of concept development must be recognized as a problem which can be very different from that of vocabulary growth, (2) that words seldom mean the same thing in two languages, that is, the range of experiences covered by a word in one language seldom corresponds to the range of experiences covered by its "counterpart" in the other language, and (3) that lack of control of the signals of grammatical structure can present problems as serious as or even more serious than those which are more commonly attacked in remedial reading programs.

From these conclusions we may yet draw a fourth, namely, that the problems posed, though often handled by the reading teacher as reading problems, are not problems which intrinsically involve the printed page, but are really language problems. The reading teacher of non-English speaking students is in essence a language teacher.

To the extent that the remedial reading teacher is also a second language teacher, his effectiveness will be governed in large part by his grasp of second language learning problems and his effective use of second language teaching techniques. The professional literature in English as a second language is rich both in theory and in practical applications. My purpose here, however, is not to expound methodologies but rather to plead for a recognition on the part of the remedial reading teacher and his supervisors of the role such teachers need to assume when they are faced with large numbers of students whose control of English is limited by virtue of its being their second language.

Our experience thus far in regard to the reading abilities of native Spanish speaking students learning English has been consistent. From the primary grades into college, the student who can read in his vernacular can also, with a minimum of effort, learn to read in English within the limits of his control of the language and the cultural background of which English is a part. The relatively minor difficulties caused by interference of spelling systems which results in a student's reading *hot* for *hat* may disturb us and warrant our attention as teachers of pronunciation, but such mispronunciations rarely interfere with the student's comprehension of what he is reading if the material is a part of his linguistic equipment. Such a student is more of a language problem than a reading problem, and should be treated as such.

In addition to the multiple language problems the non-English speaking student brings to the remedial reading class a variety of problems which he may also have that intrinsically involve reading. These problems range in some cases from the simplest level of automatic response to the patterns of sounds and symbols, to automatic response to grammatical patterns as they appear on the printed page, and on to automatic response to the sequence signals which relate consecutive sentences within paragraphs.

As a final note on the problem of "poverty of concepts" among bilingual students, there seems to be an increasing recognition that the culturally disadvantaged student does not necessarily suffer from poverty of concepts. On the contrary, such children are found to have a wealth of experiences and concepts. The problem is in some cases that the experiences do not happen to correspond to those promoted by school curricula, even though they may conceivably be socially acceptable and could serve as a basis on which to build. As a nation we are only now beginning to break away from the unfortunate tradition of the melting pot in which rejection of one's past was a necessary first step in the Americanization process. We are beginning to assign positive values to the sub-cultures within our midst and to consider the possibility of adding to rather than eliminating the storehouse of experiences and concepts of the so-called culturally disadvantaged child. The remedial reading teacher, perhaps more than any other single member of the faculty, has an opportunity to help the "disadvantaged" bilingual youth to find dignity in his past and to lift the eyes hopefully to the future.

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2. Teaching Reading to the Linguistically Disadvantaged at Senior High Level

MAMIE SIZEMORE

IT HAS BEEN estimated that twenty-five per cent of the school population of the United States is bilingual. By demanding the use of the English language, as the medium of instruction, American schools force upon a large number of children the problem of bilingualism. The melting pot of the United States indeed possesses many children entering school with little or no knowledge of English. Many observers and investigators conclude that childhood bilingualism, forced or voluntary, results in more disadvantages than advantages. The child tends to carry over habits from his mother tongue to the new language. Many times these variations do not tend to decrease with age or skill.

Your bilingual student poses his own special problems in the high school classroom. His problems are not the same as your English-speaking remedial student who is frequently either intellectually slow or lazy or unmotivated. Experienced teachers find, however, this much is true of some remedial and some linguistically disadvantaged students: both may have serious emotional barriers to self-expression. It will be found of certain bilingual students that they have not mastered the sound system of English. They may be fluent in a rather slangy brand of English, so fluent in fact that their proficiency in the substandard brand is a real barrier for them to overcome in speaking, reading, and writing when they get into high school.

Above all if they were exposed to reading before they spoke English fluently, their auditory discrimination is often poor. You will find that frequently the bilingual readers' syllable sense is very poorly developed. If they do not know the phonemes of the English language, it is hard for them to hear parts of words clearly. Figurative language loses much of its delights and subtleties in translation. Biblical and mythological allusions frequently mean nothing to them. How can they understand a piece of writing when they have missed possibly the general interpretation, and certainly the overtone of satire, indirect implications, and connotations?

Senior high school teachers must continue to sustain, and harmonize the learning of the communication skills in their logical order: hearing, speaking, reading and writing. They should offer a diversity in learning activities to hold the interest of their linguistically handicapped students and give them real help to overcome their language problems. Their many weaknesses—such as limited attention span, unwillingness to try because of repeated failures, limited speaking vocabulary and word attack skills—these all suggest the need for multiple approaches toward learning goals. Experienced teachers have found that their high school classrooms must become reading laboratories where students receive systematic and continued help in acquiring the fundamental skills of reading if they have not been achieved in the elementary school. More than the native English speaking students, the bilingual students need real experiences for the purpose of expanding their horizons of knowledge about the world in which we live. *To learn to read English they must speak the language.* To build concepts and add to their understanding of what they read, there must be plentiful discussion in English. Thoroughly mastering the basic signals of the new language is imperative but not sufficient. To really understand what they read, the cultural meaning problem must be attacked systematically.

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2. A High School Program for the Bilingual

EDGAR WARREN SMITH
Albuquerque, New Mexico High School

TEACHING reading to bilinguals becomes, in effect, the teaching of the English language. In Albuquerque High School the bilingual pupils are Spanish-American, Indian (both Navajo and Pueblo), dialectal variants from the South, a scattering of Cuban refugee children, and a few children of Mexican parents. Our problems are linguistically complex because of the many mixed varieties of native languages and the varying degrees of bilingualism.

Pupil Classification

Most of our pupils are below grade level in reading. For the current year, 1964-65, there are thirty-one sophomore classes, eight above average reading level and twenty-three below average. The classes below average are subdivided into ten basic language arts classes, two repeat classes, and eleven classes of sub-standard achievers whose reading and other language arts skills are above those of the basic language arts groups. There are seven regular classes and one advanced class. Because of the abnormal language situation, we group the pupils in order to work with the substandard groups as second language pupils.

Basic Communication

Bilingualism here is further complicated by cultural deprivation. We consider the basic purpose of our English language program to be *communication* in all of the language arts areas—speaking, listening, reading, writing, and thinking. Reading, which cannot be taught in isolation, is taught as a part of the entire language cycle. Our program is designed to bring the bilinguals to a standard and practical language fluency and use.

Methodology

New philosophies, methods, and materials in modern language departments have caused us to look at language teaching for help with English language difficulties. Much of our work is in reality the teaching of English as a second language.

Most traditional methods, practices, and materials fail with our pupils. We were asking many of them to *read* materials before they had the proper oral language foundation and experience. We were wrong. We now try to expose them to the language and ideas of a particular situation, to standard conversational patterns, common idioms, vocabulary, multiple meanings of words, language stress, pitch, juncture—the intonation or speech melody of English. We try to work in these areas orally before the pupils are expected to read. The only *English* that many of our pupils hear and speak during a day is that to which they are involuntarily exposed during the six or seven hours they spend in school and the English of commercial TV.

Real and Artificial Languages

We stress the difference between the *real* language which is spoken and heard and the *artificial* language of symbols used in writing and reading.[1] Many of our pupils must be taught the sound system, sentence structures, and word form changes before they are able to encode and decode language symbols efficiently. Bilinguals are handicapped by not hearing or producing English exactly.[2] We concentrate first on those sounds which make a difference in language meaning. Later we practice the less important sounds which might prove embarrassing in speech but which do not cause confusion of meaning. Much practice is necessary to correct the speaking and listening problems of bilingual and/or culturally deprived pupils and to establish standard fluent and facile language habits.[3]

Adaptation to Meet Needs

The teaching of grammar (syntax) and

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[1] Faye L. Bumpass, *Teaching Young Students English as a Foreign Language.* New York: American Book Company, 1963, p. 13.

[2] *Ibid.*

[3] *Ibid.*, p. 14.

language usage would be highly inappropriate if our English teachers were not acutely aware of the pupils' native languages. There is a complexity of kinds and degrees of language production and contrasts in the same classroom. Some difficulties are common to a large group; some are individual problems. Frank Riessman in writing about the culturally deprived quotes suggestions from Patricia Sexton (*Education and Income*).[4] Sexton recommends tailormade instruction of special short-form exercises adapted to real student problems. We try to heed this advice in our program—we write, adapt, rewrite, improvise, edit—but even so we have our share of failures.

Types of Materials

Commercial materials are never exactly right for our southwestern bilinguals. We use what is practical. We write much additional material to provide drill in difficult and weak areas, material which takes the form of teacher-written dialogues, narratives, substitution, and replacement drills.

Dialogue materials are used in the basic language arts classes. They are structured simply to include drill on English sounds, sentence structures, word forms, vocabulary, and social situations.[5]

Aural-Oral Method

The teacher models the oral dialogue, a small segment at a time. The students repeat the segment. Often the teacher must stop to drill a difficult structure, sound, or intonation pattern. After sufficient practice, printed copies are distributed for oral reading. In a later class meeting the dialogue is used as a basis for writing practice. Symbolization of language sounds as well as mechanics is stressed in this writing step.

We encourage pupils to verbalize and write original dialogues using key words from lessons. We attempt to structure classes for success and to move students easily from one success to another. Sometimes this means backtracking, reteaching, and drilling when success is not forthcoming.

Later, there is evaluation of language comprehension, oral production, and writing.

Our pupils cannot be treated as foreign students. They have been exposed to English language in school for a number of years. Therefore, teaching English as a second language has to be somewhat modified for them. The aural-oral method, however, when adapted to meet their needs, is a valuable approach.

Vocabulary

Our pupils have meager vocabularies. We attempt to build operational vocabularies, and this is a slow, wearisome task. Words must be used, clarified, associated, and practiced. Teachers must not be deceived into believing that bilingual students understand all the words they can say. They do not.

We select ten to twenty basic sentences from a teacher-written narration containing terms, idioms, and concepts to be taught. These sentences maintain a unity of ideas and the gist of the narrative. The oral practice is a type of substitution drill. Particular words selected for study are deleted from context, and synonyms are elicited from the pupils to fit into the context. Oral practice is continued until the pupils know both the original words and the synonyms. Review by means of overhead projection usually follows this type of vocabulary lesson.

The bilingualism of our students can be an asset, a valuable skill to be developed. Both the native tongue and the second language need development to a point of practical fluency and use as communication vehicles.

Interest and Motivation

In our program we continually face two problems: interest and the desire to learn. The situation is not always happy. We find it difficult to interest many of these young people. Their attention spans are short; their previous lack of success in English classes and with books in general often becomes a block. We try almost anything which we think might work to obtain and maintain interest: concrete and applicable topics and situations, student-centered activities, varied methods, a generous use of audiovisual equipment, and the recognition of individual differences and interests.

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[4] Frank Riessman, *The Culturally Deprived Child*. New York, Evanston, and London: Harper and Row, Publishers, 1962.

[5] Miles V. Zintz, *Education Across Cultures*. Dubuque, Iowa: Wm. C. Brown Book Company, 1963, pp. 213-214.

Conclusion

We continue searching for ways and means of fostering a desire to learn the *immediate* lesson, situation, language problem, or idea, and the *long range* desire to synthesize learning so that each pupil is finally a literate, thinking, and understanding human being.

In a program for bilinguals, we, of necessity, are interested in materials, methods, and pupil growth. We try always to get attention, maintain interest, and foster a desire in these children to improve themselves and their environments and to be useful citizens of our community and our society.

C. SENIOR HIGH LEVEL

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1. Reading Success of High School Students Who Are Speakers of Other Languages

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University of New Mexico

THE STATUS of reading for many Spanish-American and Indian students in the high schools of New Mexico might more accurately be described as unsuccessful—rather than as having any degree of success. Those who are successful may be said to have little or no language problem and so are not included in these remarks. Part of the problem stems from the conflict between teaching inflexible outlines of subject matter on the one hand and adjusting the instruction to the actual achievement levels of the students on the other. Observing students at work and seeing either over-anxiety and frustration or defeat already accepted, one is continually reminded of the beds of Procrustes.

This report presents a brief report of (1) the historical background of the problems in school achievement, (2) the cultural conflicts which many of the students face, and (3) the problems of learning English as a second language.

Historical Background

Historical background includes both the efforts in testing intelligence of students from other cultures and the use of standardized reading tests to measure the extent of retardation.

Intelligence Testing. A great deal of testing has been done since Pintner, about 1925, postulated that Indians and Spanish-Americans would have intelligence more nearly approximating that of Anglo-Americans according to the amount of "white" blood that they had flowing in their veins.[1] Even today, some continue to explain such stereotypes as "He does well for a Navajo" or "Indians can't read but they are all good artists." Sanchez[2] was one of the first who determined to disprove this. He tested Spanish-American children and then gave them enriching experiences and greater knowledge of English vocabulary, and when retested they approached "normal" intelligence.

Haught[3] compared the school achievement of Spanish-American and Anglo-American children testing the hypothesis that, in the beginning, language might be a handicap but that the longer the children stayed in school the less the differences in achievement could be attributed to language.

Haught said: "It seems reasonable to assume that a language handicap encountered in taking an intelligence test should decrease as the children become older, progress through the grades, and thus become better acquainted with the English language."[4]

He found that the IQ scores actually dropped, and the drop was marked at age ten; the older students were handicapped as much as the younger. Therefore Haught eliminated language as the handicap, and reported the average Spanish-American child had an IQ of only 79 compared to the 100 for the average Anglo. He did add that some Spanish American children were as bright as the very superior Anglos.[5]

Haught's study was selected from several because of the specific hypothesis he chose. The naive statement that students would gain language sophistication merely by attending school and develop all the necessary academic vocabulary for "keeping up" in subject matter may be excused in 1930, but it can hardly be condoned today. Yet, when administrators do not establish a curriculum that will systematically and consciously develop such a language sophistication along with an understanding of the cultural chasms that exist, the same naive hypothesis is being perpetuated.

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[1] Rudolph Pintner. *Intelligence Testing.* New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1924, p. 395.

[2] George I. Sanchez, "A Study of the Scores of Spanish-Speaking Children on Repeated Tests," (unpublished Master's Thesis), The University of Texas, Austin, 1931.

[3] B. F. Haught, "The Language Difficulty of Spanish-American Children," *The Journal of Applied Psychology,* 15 (February, 1931), pp. 92-95.

[4] *Ibid.,* p. 92.

[5] *Ibid.,* p. 95.

Educational Retardation

Tireman[6] reported in 1936 that Spanish-speaking children tested further and further below grade placement as they progressed through the grades. In one county in New Mexico, fourth graders were seven months retarded on standardized reading test, fifth grade was 1.1 years retarded; sixth grade 1.8 years retarded; and seventh grade 2.3 years retarded.

Coombs, *et al.*,[7] found in 1958 test results with Indian children that ". . . they tended to fall progressively farther below the "national" norms as the higher grades were reached."

In 1960, Boyce[8] reported ". . . That achievement medians of Indian children, regardless of language handicap, tend to be up to norm by the end of the second grade. Thereafter, more and more Indian children fall below published norms. By the end of sixth grade, Indian achievement medians in the three R's tend to be two or more grades below published norms."

Townsend[9] tested 558 eleventh and twelfth graders in four selected schools in 1961 . . . with the Diagnostic Reading Test: Survey Section. Approximately 73 per cent of the eleventh grade, and 65 per cent of the twelfth grade Indian students scored below the twentieth percentile. Approximately 54 per cent of the eleventh and 51 per cent of the twelfth grade Indian students scored below the tenth percentile.

The Cultural Conflicts

The student internalizes much of his way of behaving by the demands placed upon him by his culture. The culture instills group goals, mores, levels of aspiration. Within his cultural group he learns the social roles he as an individual has to play. A man in a village may have a *special role* in a secret religious society, a different *special role* in the Christian worship service in the church in the Pueblo, another role as a kind, permissive father to his own children, but as a sterner disciplinarian for his sister's children, still other special roles in determining his place as an outsider in his wife's extended family and one more permanently attached to his mother's clan even after marriage. Psychologically, he has learned myriad responses to his needs for belonging, recognition, response to others, and desire for experience.

Thus, all of us are creatures of an environment that integrates an anthropological-sociological-psychological heritage.[10]

If out of this one learns that witches, not germs cause diseases, he may learn to give the teacher the answer that is taught at school but go back to his own world to believe his mother's teaching.

If it almost always rains after a rain dance, is rain caused by the condensation of water vapor or by the dancing?

If you believe snakes can ask the gods to send rain, then you would not want to kill one. If it were about to bite you, you would only move it away with a stick. Any animal that could bring rain to the Arizona desert is too valuable to kill!

Do you break your arm because you put too much pressure on the bone or because you think bad thoughts?[11]

Now, if a teacher lets you know that all those beliefs are wrong, and thus, bad, will you reject them and your family and try eagerly to read well in a strange language?

So, many factors influence a child's learning a second language: (1) desire, (2) amount of exposure, (3) socio-economic status, (4) influence of leaders, (5) schools, (6) educational adjuncts, such as television, radios, fairs, and travel experiences, and (7) the extent to which there are elements common to the two languages. For example, English and Spanish are much more alike than English and Navajo.[12]

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[6] Loyd S. Tireman. Teaching Spanish-Speaking Children. Albuquerque: The University of New Mexico Press, 1948, p. 68.

[7] L. Madison Coombs, et. al. *The Indian Child Goes to School.* Washington: U. S. Dept. of Interior, Bureau of Indian Affairs, 1958, p. 3.

[8] George Boyce, "Why Do Indians Quit School?" *Indian Education,* No. 344. Lawrence, Kansas: Haskell Institute, May 1, 1960, p. 5.

[9] Irving D. Townsend, The Reading Achievement of Eleventh and Twelfth Grade Indian Students and a Survey of Curricular Changes Indicated for the Improved Teaching of Reading in the Public High Schools of New Mexico, Unpublished Doctoral dissertation, The University of New Mexico, Albuquerque, 1961, p. 118.

[10] Miles V. Zintz. *Education Across Cultures.* Dubuque, Iowa: William C. Brown Book Company, 1963, p. 51.

[11] Carol M. Charles, "The Indian Child's Status in New Mexico's Public Elementary School Science Program," Unpublished doctoral dissertation, The University of New Mexico, Albuquerque, 1961.

Testing Language Power in English

At the University of New Mexico, several facets of the English language have been isolated and tests devised to measure understanding. Tests of knowledge of idioms, multiple meanings, antonyms, homonyms, synonyms, and simple analogies have been used. Yandell[13] found that the median Navajo sixth grader understood English idioms no better than the Anglo sixth grader at the first percentile in the Anglo distribution of scores on a test. The Zuni Pueblo child understood them no better than the second percentile in the Anglo distribution; and the median Spanish American 6th grader understood them no better than the fifth percentile in the Anglo distribution. This study was reported in *The Reading Teacher*, March, 1961.[14] Mercer,[15] Dudding,[16] Hess[17] and Cox[18] found that fourth grade Anglo children in Albuquerque earn statistically significantly higher scores on such language tests than sixth graders from all these minority groups.

Conclusions

One may conclude from the foregoing remarks that there is a grave need for the teaching of English as a second language to all these students who are severely language handicapped. Such techniques are well developed and such an approach is now being instituted in many primary classrooms. This does not meet the need of those students who are already in the junior and senior high schools. Progress is being made, but, for some with little patience, progress seems too slow.

Gallup-McKinley County Schools,[19] in which an approximate enrollment of 8,600 students are 50 per cent Navajo, are developing some excellent materials for primary grades, providing lesson plans for teachers with basic sentence pattern drills, reviews and supplementary materials. Talley[20] has demonstrated in experimental sixth grade classes that children taught English vocabulary in a language enrichment program were able to raise their mean IQ scores ten points in six months of one school year. Further, the language handicapped pupils almost closed the gap between their scores on language tests and those earned by unilingual Anglo American sixth graders.

Morris[21] demonstrated that another type of enrichment—giving many experiences through a sequence of field trips, with sentence pattern drills before and after the excursions for practice was profitable for children in the primary grades. The same type of experiences would be equally profitable for older students who lack both first-hand experiences and the language for discussing them.

The solutions are not easy—encompassing the anthropological, as well as the sociological and psychological, nature of cultural heritage, understanding the interdependence of language and culture, learning the elementary linguistics involved in contrasting the sound systems of the two languages, and developing some sophistication in the teaching of English as a second language may be a great deal to ask of a classroom teacher—but teachers of this caliber are the ones who will help students overcome their language, experience and cultural barriers.

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[12] Loyd Tireman and Miles V. Zintz, "Factors Influencing Learning a Second Language," *Education*, 81 (January, 1961), pp. 310-313.

[13] Yandell, Maurine Dunn, "Some Difficulties Which Indian Children Encounter With Idioms in Reading," Unpublished Master's Thesis, The University of New Mexico, Albuquerque, 1959.

[14] Yandell, Maurine and Miles Zintz, "Some Difficulties Which Indian Children Encounter With Idioms in Reading," *The Reading Teacher*, 14: pp. 256-259, March, 1961.

[15] Veta W. Mercer, "The Efficiency of Bilingual Children in Understanding Analogies in the English Language," Unpublished Master's Thesis, The University of New Mexico, 1960.

[16] Christine Dudding, "An Investigation into the Bilingual Child's Comprehension of Antonyms," Unpublished Master's Thesis, The University of New Mexico, 1961.

[17] Stephen G. Hess, "A Comparative Study of the Understanding Which Bilingual Students Have of the Multiple Meanings of English Words," Unpublished Master's Thesis, The University of New Mexico, 1963.

[18] Clara Jett Cox, "Teaching Multiple Meanings to Sixth Grade Navajo Students," Unpublished Research Paper, The University of New Mexico, Albuquerque, 1964.

[19] Dr. James Porterfield, Director of Curriculum, Gallup-McKinley County Schools, Gallup, New Mexico.

[20] Kathryn Talley, "The Effects of a Program of Special Language Instruction on the Reading and Intellectual Levels of Bilingual Children," Research in Progress, The University of New Mexico, Albuquerque, 1965.

[21] Joyce Morris. "An Experience Approach to Oral English and Concept Development for Bilingual or Non-English Speaking Children in New Mexico," Research in Progress, The University of New Mexico, Albuquerque, 1965.

Administrators and supervisors who plan the curriculum and purchase the materials of instruction must also acquire these skills.

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3. Effect of Reading Instruction on Modification of Certain Attitudes

WILLIAM P. DORNEY

THE CLOSE relationship between reading retardation and delinquency has long been recognized. Many authorities in the field of reading and delinquency have accepted the factor of emotional maladjustment as a prime cause of reading disability. This pattern of thinking has resulted in many studies evaluating the effectiveness of all forms of therapy on the rehabilitation of delinquent children and the concomitant improvement in reading ability. Unfortunately, less attention has been paid to the other side of the issue, the aspect in which this study is primarily interested. That is, to what extent does reading instruction mitigate the maladjustment of the adolescent delinquent who is retarded in reading. This paper describes an experimental design that measures the effect of reading instruction on the modification of attitudes and behavior of a group of adolescent delinquents who were retarded in reading.

Subjects

The 45 subjects employed in this study were selected from a population of adolescent delinquents who had been turned over by the Court of Special Sessions of the City of New York to the Youth Counsel Bureau for supervision and guidance. They comprised boys between ages of sixteen and twenty whose IQs ranged from 75 to 110. They were all retarded in reading and volunteered to receive instruction.

Method and Procedure

These subjects were divided into three equal groups matched on the basis of age, IQ, reading ability, and length of probation. The groups were also equated for ethnic background. The groups were given either reading instruction, swimming instruction, or no treatment. The 15 subjects in the Reading Group were given 50 sessions of reading instruction at New York University. Each member of the group was given a reading test and a text based on the results of an informal book test by the investigator. They were also given a reading workbook that emphasized specific reading skills in the other academic areas. In order to negate any embarrassment that might result from the carrying of such as elementary book, each subject was provided with New York University book covers and a large portfolio with a New York University decal. The reading lessons were based on the diagnostic findings of a standardized reading test, the informal book test, and the specific needs and intrests of the subjects. This involved such areas as reading want ads, menus, employment blanks, maps, telephone directories, and work-study skills as they related to the written examination for the various military services. Swimming instruction was given to one group at a New York City Park Department pool because of the following reasons:

1. Swimming instruction entails both individual and group work, as does reading instruction.
2. The subjects of the Swimming Group would have varying degrees of ability, as would the subjects of the Reading Group.
3. In the Swimming Group the motivation of the subjects to participate would be high.
4. The effect of the investigator's personality on the subjects receiving reading instruction would be equated with a similar effect on the subjects receiving swimming instruction.

The group that received no treatment acted as the Control Group. All subjects were evaluated according to changes in attitudes toward certain authority figures, improvement in behavior, and reading ability.

Results

The results were separately organized according to the effects of the various forms of treatment on certain attitudes toward authority figures, behavior, and reading ability.

The following results were obtained for changes in attitude toward authority figures:

1. The order of improvement from greatest to least was reading instruction, control, and swimming instruction.

2. The magnitude of improvement was significantly greater in the Reading Group than in the other two groups. There were no significant differences between the Swimming Group and the Control Group.

The following findings were obtained with regard to behavior:

1. The order of improvement from greatest to least was reading instruction, swimming instruction, and control.

2. The magnitude of improvement was significantly better for the Reading Group when compared to the other two groups. The Control Group retrogressed to a significant degree when compared to the Swimming Group.

The following findings were obtained with regard to a follow-up study of each subject's court involvement eighteen months after the termination of the experiment:

1. The order of improvement from greatest to least was reading instruction, swimming instruction, and control.

2. The magnitude of improvement was significantly greater in the Reading Group than in the other two groups. The swimming Group was significantly better than the Control Group.

The following findings were obtained with regard to reading ability:

1. The order of improvement from greatest to least was reading instruction, control, and swimming instruction.

2. The magnitude of improvement was significantly greater in the Reading Group than in the other two groups; however, the Control Group was significantly better than the Swimming Group.

Conclusions

It may be concluded that reading instruction is effective in modifying certain attitudes toward authority figures of adolescent delinquents. The differential effectiveness of reading instruction or swimming instruction appears to be significantly different; however, either is more effective than no treatment. The results of this study suggest that treatment of delinquents retarded in reading should emphasize reading instruction as a therapeutic instrument for rehabilitation. The positive modifications of certain attitudes toward authority figures and the concomitant improvement in behavior should emphasize the importance of reading instruction, not only for the various agencies that service these boys but also for the various school systems throughout the country that have to program for socially maladjusted youth.

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2. Guiding New Teachers in Secondary School Reading Instruction for "Children Without"

338. GERTRUDE L. DOWNING
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The Two Dimensions of the Program

IN DESIGNING programs of reading instruction for disadvantaged youth, we are faced with the dual task of instructing not only the under-achieving readers but also their incompletely prepared beginning teachers.

The problem of providing concurrent training for both pupils and teachers in secondary schools is a mighty one for supervisors who frequently feel forced to resort to slavish adherence to specific courses of study in reading (where they exist) or to laissez-faire utilization of the newest book, pre-packaged materials, or automated devices. All of these approaches are deficient to the degree that they ignore the specific needs of pupils and the professional potential of teachers.

Over a period of three years' work with disadvantaged adolescents on The

BRIDGE Project,[1] three beginning teachers (of English, social studies, and mathematics and science) gained gratifying competence in providing meaningful reading instruction. A brief review of these experiences may prove helpful to other teachers and supervisors faced with the problems of improving the reading abilities of culturally different youth in secondary schools.

Assessing Pupil Needs

From the outset, the reading program was devised by the teachers themselves with the leadership and guidance of the coordinator as a resource person in reading. In order to estimate the extent of their task, the teachers were assisted in diagnosing pupil needs. Frequency distributions of standardized achievement-test scores revealed a picture of appropriate levels for whole-class instruction. Item analyses of test responses yielded profiles of pupil needs for skills training which guided organization for small group or individual work. In determining specific lacks within given areas or skills, the teachers were helped greatly by informal instruments found in various published materials, and they soon learned to devise measures of their own to meet special situations. By observing the coordinator at work with low-achieving readers, the teachers learned to administer the informal textbook inventory. The skills they gained here proved useful not only in this oral diagnosis but also in sharpening their aural observation of pupil-reading performance in the classroom.

Designing and Implementing a Reading-Skills Program

Armed with these diagnostic blueprints, the teachers and the coordinator were able to assess the dimensions of their undertaking. Having defined the problem, they found it was now possible to outline reasonably exact approaches to its solution.

In group conferences, the four staff members designed a tentative sequence of reading-skills instruction, one semester at a time. In subsequent weekly conferences, the effectiveness of the preceding lessons was evaluated by all the teachers and modifications were made in the projections for future teaching.

The changing patterns of assistance offered by the coordinator reflected the teachers' growing capabilities. During the first year, the teachers progressed from initial imitation of demonstration lessons to utilization of detailed sample lesson plans, thence to adaptation of these plans, and finally to composition of original instructional approaches. During the second and third years, the coordinator provided guidance through the preparation of Reading Instructional Resource Sheets for each topic of emphasis in the reading program. These noted for the teachers the related materials available in the school:

TOPIC:
(Specific statement of skill to be taught.)
RESOURCES:
Teacher References:
(Titles and page numbers of professional books in the curriculum library which would provide foundational understandings for the teacher.)
Audio-visual Materials:
(Films, filmstrips, recordings, flat pictures, and transparencies to vitalize learning experiences.)
Text Materials:
(Chapter or section references in reading-improvement books or content-area texts suitable for introductory teaching of the specific skill.)
Practice Materials:
(Exercises in practice books to be adapted to exact needs for drill to fix learnings.)
PRACTICAL APPLICATION:
(Notation of activities suggested in conference by each teacher to provide for transfer of reading skills to the various content areas.)

In conference, the teacher of developmental reading (this assignment varied each year) presented to his colleagues his planned activities based on the resource sheet, and they noted ways in which they could implement and reinforce instruction in their own disciplines. When possible, the teachers gathered to observe a reading lesson being taught so that they could

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[1] Gertrude L. Downing, Robert W. Edgar, Albert J. Harris, Leonard Kornberg, Helen F. Storen. *The Preparation of Teachers for Schools in Culturally Deprived Neighborhoods (The BRIDGE Project)*, Cooperative Research Project No. 935, Flushing, New York: Queens College, 1965.

capitalize on the experience to the fullest in their respective classrooms.

Values in Teacher Training

In evaluating the effects of the program on their professional growth, the teachers identified certain advantages:

The instructional sequence was evolved to meet the specific needs not only of the pupils but also of the teachers.

The program was meaningful because it was developed through cooperative effort of all concerned with instruction.

The teachers learned how to teach reading effectively by "discovering and doing." Background reading, observation of instructional films, selection of practice materials and group discussion of lesson plans enabled the instructors to learn while they taught.

At the conclusion of the project, one of the teachers remarked ruefully, "If I'd known about reading skills then what I know now, college work would have been much easier for me."

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4. Building Rapport with the Disadvantaged

EUGENE B. GRANT

IN RECENT YEARS great numbers of people have left the regions where they grew up and moved into the large urban areas. Although these people seek to better their way of life, they are immediately faced with a new set of conditions in a new environment which may soon be interpreted by them as unfriendly. If this movement continues at the present pace, it is estimated that by 1970 half the inhabitants of the large cities will be made up of people so disadvantaged that they will be unable to participate in the affairs of society.

As we think about a solution to this problem most of us turn our thoughts toward education. But in order to educate those who have now become alienated and resentful in this new environment, the schools, and the teacher in particular, face a tremendous and complicated task. The teacher must begin this task by trying to establish an all-important rapport between herself and her pupils. The establishment of rapport must be effected, first of all, by building mutual respect. But immediately the teacher is faced with the question of how to develop mutual respect.

In an attempt to develop mutual respect the teacher needs to have, early in the program, some estimate of the learner's capacity to do school-like tasks. The tasks that pupils are expected to perform must be commensurate with their capabilities. Traditionally, group intelligence tests have been used in an effort to measure this ability. These tests, however, are much less than satisfactory when they are used with the culturally disadvantaged. While individual mental tests may be much more satisfactory, they too seem to penalize those who are not in the middle class culture.

But, if mutual respect is to be gained the teacher must be alert to the harmful effects of requiring from her pupils either too little or too much. If she requires too little, the students learn that she does not regard them very highly as learners and they soon discredit themselves, thereby losing greatly needed confidence. If too many demands are made, students may develop a feeling of inferiority.

What are the alternatives to using an intelligence test as a means of appraising the capabilities of the disadvantaged?

There seems to be no good answer to this question, but it has been suggested that role playing be utilized in making judgments of potential. Children might be asked to act out the part of some familiar character or they might be asked to explain something of interest to them, such as the conversion of an old car to a "custom job." It is thought that by providing the disadvantaged with an opportunity to exploit their knowledge of certain topics and processes, or by allowing them to play certain roles, they will reveal their potential in a much more forceful fashion than is possible by the use of intelligence tests which are usually designed for middle class culture.

In building rapport it is also necessary for the teacher to understand her pupils and their difficulties with relationship to their home life. It is only through such understanding that she can hold sufficient respect for her pupils to allow her to teach them in an unpatronizing and uncondescending way. She must show sympathy and acceptance without emphasizing the weaknesses of her pupils. She must understand their way of life and must also understand the difficulties they experience in overcoming the negative aspects of their environment.

The teacher who is informal, straightforward, and down-to-earth will do much to develop good rapport, but the classroom should not be so conducted that it could be thought of as too permissive. These students want to know what the limits are and exactly what the tasks are. They like to follow a routine with clearly established and enforced rules. While they do not like a harsh dictatorship, they prefer a rather strict discipline—the kind they know best.

Finally, in building rapport, disadvantaged children need to engage in activities that will allow them to make use of their own experiential background. But as important as this is, they also need supplementary experience that may be provided by filmstrips, field trips, construction activities, and meaningful art activities.

In building rapport with the disadvantaged it is necessary that the teacher recognize the pupils' limitations and set tasks which they can perform; that she understand their way of life and the problems they face because of it; that the atmosphere of her classroom be friendly but not necessarily permissive. Finally, the materials she uses should be most appropriate for these children.

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I. Developing Lifetime Reading Habits

1. As the Bee Goes to the Flower for Its Nectar

CHARLES G. SPIEGLER

Reverence for the printed word was rarely expressed more movingly than in a recent New Yorker (2/22/63) piece in which the writer, grieved by the paralyzing newspaper strike said:

> The view of the strike as an economic disaster misses (an) important point . . . for it ignores the rich sustenance, the elusive yet almost essential nourishment, that the city reader draws, morning and evening, from that printed bread loaf he carries under his arm. . . . Without his newspaper he has been subtly starving, and he senses within himself the loss of well-being, the dullness, the suspicion, and the silence of the exile. . . .

Having once tasted the joy of the printed newspaper word, we cannot, forever after, live happily without it. And, as for literature, it is to Arnold Bennett "first and last a means of life. . . . People who don't want to live, people who would sooner hibernate than feel intensely, will be wise to eschew (it). They had better sit around and eat blackberries."[1]

The hibernating blackberry eaters in this, "The Affluent Society," far outnumber the book lovers. Only 17 per cent of our people (compared to 31 per cent from Canada and 51 per cent from England) can, on one survey answer "yes" to the question "Are you now reading a book?". "Only one person in ten," says Professor Harry C. Bauer of the University of Washington who has studied our citizenry's reading habits for four decades, "is what I would call 'bibliographically inclined',—that is a patron of a book store or a library." Talk to the 200 Oxford, Miss., oldsters interviewed in 1960[2] and only 80 read books and, even these, on an average of 30 minutes daily.

Let no one speak of cultural deprivation as a modern phenomenon. It has been with us since the beginning of time.

Today, as never before, we have launched a frontal attack on those conditions which, in the past, have divorced children from books, that none but the hard core of the disaffected, the ignorant and the slothful can help but be touched by it. Publishers have given us a Golden Age of Writing—a Golden Age of Illustration for youth, with, literally, thousands of volumes that can bring "Gooseflesh and glimpses of glory" to students ranging from the smallest knee-high-to-a-grasshopper-kindergartner with eyes to see and ears to hear—to the tallest, most sophisticated High School senior. The Paperback Revolution with its infinite number of outlets (including 3,000 Paperback Bookshops in schools across the land) has made it possible at little or no more than it costs him to down a malted milk, for a youngster to buy anything from *Ferdinand the Bull* to *War and Peace.* Bill Boutwell's Student Book Clubs from *Arrow* to *Campus* to *Lucky* to *Teen Age* boast a membership which the best of the best Adult Book Clubs would give their eyeteeth to own. Librarians the country over stand in a Team Teaching relationship with their colleagues on the firing line never as solid as on this day. Even the TV networks, the oft-maligned target of our profession, are in a happy and fruitful alliance with us to make readers out of viewers. Finally, and *most* important, many teachers have themselves caught the message that "Interest is the key to reading," and that, as America's Reading Dean, Dr. Arthur Gates, put it to me way back in 1955, "the mechanics we teach are but the springs and spindles in a lock. Only interest," he averred, "will turn that lock and open the door to the world of fun, information, escape and wonder that reading can be—."

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[1] Arnold Bennett, *Literary Taste*. New York: Doubleday, 1927.

[2] Jere Hoar, "Book Reading in the Senior Years," *Journal of Educational Sociology* (November, 1960).

I have an absolute faith that in this, "The Affluent Society," we can erase the blot on our escutcheon of men and women who, like the oldsters in Oxford, Miss., turn, in the twilight of their lives, to anything but books—when lights are low and shadows fall; of men and women whose reading development is so tragically arrested that they read, at 70, the very same trivia they read when their hearts were young and gay.

My own personal faith is founded on nearly a decade of experience with hundreds of boys like Tommy Trainor, a young 16-year-old butcher boy in my school of 900 future butchers and bakers and cooks and maritime workers. When I first met Tommy, I recall, he reminded me of Paddy Chayefsky's "Marty"—the dull, limited kind of lad whose life was dedicated to learning how to make a living but not to learning how to live. He had, for example, never, never voluntarily read a book, cover to cover, in all his 16 years! So we began by allowing him, as a starter, to read *any* book he could find *anywhere*—in a library, in a drugstore, on any dust-laden bookshelf he could reach at home, at a friend's, *anywhere.* I'll never forget the quizzical look on his face when I made him this offer. "Are you kiddin'?" He said. I wasn't. And soon he was reporting on a monstrosity called *Tough Kid from Brooklyn* (Avon):

> It was about two bums and a kid, and it told about how they lived moving from place to place—not knowing where their next meal was coming from. I learned something from this book—that no matter what I turn out—I will never be a bum.

I took him at his word and introduced him to a group of men he could "model himself on": to Wild Bill Hickok and Buffalo Bill and Kit Carson—that lively crew of American heroes which "The American Adventure Series" (Wheeler) has enshrined in fast-moving, simply written, action-packed stories. Before long, Tommy had become an avid reader of historical biography. Soon he had taken his first public-library card. And, shortly after graduation, I got this letter from Tommy:

> I feel like a person starting to smoke. First he just grabs a butt or two—then he gets into the habit—and starts going to the candy store for a pack. Soon he wouldn't be without a cigarette—that's how it is with me and books now.

We need no more additions to that now still-faceless mass of school failures and dropouts that James Conant already sees shaping itself into a massive keg of Social Dynamite which, ignited, bids fair to explode upon us all.

So we must all, and especially those of us who deal with the art and skill and love of reading, play a role in the face of this danger. "Three times as many poor readers as good readers drop out of high school before graduation," says Ruth Penty.[8] We can stem that tide, but not before we develop more creative insight into what Robert Havighurst calls "The Forgotten Third" which, let's remember, swells that tide.

Most of my boys live in an intellectual ghetto. Talk at home is largely of the "who's gonna win the fight next week?" variety. Glued to the Western and crime shows on TV, interested mostly in sports talk, the movies, girlie magazines and dates, no more than 20 boys in my school have found it worthwhile to take in a Broadway play or a concert at Carnegie Hall, even though both are little more than an hour from any boy's home. "That's for eggheads," Billy Brenner, 16, tells me when I offer him a ticket. "It's too far anyhow. Aah, you come home too late." Yet two nights a week religiously, instead of sitting down with his homework, he marches to the bowling alley.[4]

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[8] Quoted from *The Journal of National Association of Women Deans and Counsellors* (Date unknown).

How feeble and pale our approach to the reading needs of such boys can be is beautifully illustrated in a series of cartoons drawn by one Jules Feiffer (The Hall Syndicate, Inc.). We meet here two hulking lads sitting in a Remedial Reading room, awaiting the lesson, and chatting, while they wait, about their Big Love—Automobiles. Asks Ted (the first boy) of Mort—

"What do you think is better, the '62 or the '63 Corpus?"

Mort answers: "Dad had a '62 but the Cam shaft kept losing fluid, which affected his turnover rewipe. Rather than reorient, he traded her for a '61 Breakage."

Says Ted, "My dad had a '62 Breakage. Where they filed down the head points and rewired the valve slab in order to double the gas take—."

"Sure," nods Mort—"but then you have to compensate the fraction-loss by rerigging the oil jam. And that almost always leads to flotsam slippage. I don't recommend it."

The high level hot-rod talk continues with Ted admitting, "What I'd love to drive is the 'Ambulatory 8'," which he knows is a lemon, "but if you shorten the quarter rods, and vale balance the hoops you can totally eliminate skim."

At which point enter Remedial Reading teacher who stops the conversation short, turns to Mort whom she directs to "—please read to-day's English assignment." He rises, opens his book, and with unmistaken "bore me deadly" voice begins—"Look . . . at . . . Dick. Dick . . . has . . . thee . . . ball. Tom . . . wants . . . thee . . . ball. Run . . . Dick . . . run."

Small wonder then, that when the flag is down and the coast is clear, youngsters like Ted and Mort, themselves two souped up Hot Rods, will indeed run—nay roar beyond the school gates, perhaps forever—and into the road race that Life is—unread, unready, and unskilled, two more of the Wild Ones that already warn of Danger Ahead!

In my own school, and in many others beginning to see the light, Ted and Mort would have been given a sporting chance to survive. Even in our Remedial Reading classes, instead of rubbing that silly kid stuff "Look at Dick . . . Dick has the Ball" into their eyes, we have supplied materials of enormous interest to adolescent boys, yet on a reading level within reason. Thus, while they are learning all about context clues, and finding the main idea in a paragraph, and all that, they are also *reading*—and identifying with *The Daredevils who Follow the High Steel* about the Mohawk Indians who build our bridges and skyscrapers; and *themselves* taming the raging beast that high voltage electricity can be in *The Romance of the High Line;* or even taking *A Ride Through the Sound Barrier,* three of many wonderful articles that the Readers' Digest Educational Services have pulled together in two attractive soft-covered volumes called "Help Yourself to Improve Your Reading." They are not only learning to read, they are reading because they are motivated to read, and are given access to materials of the *Readers' Digest* type, like that in Elizabeth Simpson's *Better Reading Books* (SRA), similar to Rita McLaughlin's *The Literary Sampler.*

We perform the marriage between the motivated reader, eager, and the right books, accessible, not only for Remedial Readers, but for all students. It is a marriage between two elements that can make a lifetime reader.

Walk into some of my English classes and see for yourself. The forbidding tones of yesteryear are absent. *Silas Marner?* Gone! Most to the repository. Some to boys building home libraries. Some to my office. Whatever value old Silas ever had for college-bound youngsters, for mine he was pure sleeping pill. Even when awake students talked of him in terms as dry as a spinning wheel. In his place, among other things, are (if you will excuse the expression) the Anthologies. Let others condemn these as the enthronement of snippets produced by a hyperactive scissor and some paste. I know better. As one who took four long but exciting years in the preparation of one such a volume, as one who exhausted clean many a University Rare Book Room in his quest for the best, I'm pretty sick and tired of those who denigrate *all* anthologies.

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[4] From my own article "A Teacher's Report on a 'Tough' School," *New York Times Magazine,* November 24, 1957.

I do not mean to suggest that we limit ourselves to the anthologies. There are longer books which will respond to a student's nature, attract his eye, help him dream. *Kon-Tiki,* for example, with its daring young Heyerdahl on the perilous Pacific, is for us a modern-day classic, not because someone dubbed it so, but because my boys see in it the madness and the glory and the thrill of adventure dear to any boy's heart.

Nor is the established classic taboo. *Julius Caesar can* be a deadly fossil, when all it becomes is an exercise in vocabulary, or pure *explication de texte* or a manual training project on Shakespeare's Globe Theatre or the Roman Senate. "The fault," to paraphrase Cassius, "is not always in the literary work, but in the treatment it gets" that determines a class' appreciation of it. We read *Julius Caesar* as a vital study in authoritarianism, with excitement uncontained (can we do less in a divided world already eyeball to eyeball at the barricades?). My boys do not get all the language or flavor or spirit of the play, to be sure. Nor do they explain its subtleties with gentility. Enough for us that when Cinna the poet is destroyed for no reason other than that he owns the same name as Cinna the conspirator, our students can raise the cry of "Foul." Our classroom Literature program, in short, will employ those literary works we deem worth knowing—no matter the format (anthologies, full-length books, hard cover or soft).

The first book report selection in my school comes in this rather off-beat form. "For your first book report, I give you no prescription except to visit your library. There you may browse until you find a book of fact or fiction that strikes your fancy. Check it out with me. Read it. Report."

Stunned somewhat by the freedom of my assignment, students recover quickly, and the questions begin to pop.

"Any book—even a sports story?"

"Yes, any book."

"What about a thin one?"

"Why not? That's no bar."

My "yes's" and my "why-not's" are the most disarming way I know of moving large bodies of students (including the bowling-alley and the ice-cream-parlor set) into the library, with a minimum of resistance and in the mood of freewheeling adventure which I want to capture.

I would be less than ingenuous if I reported that all my students return bearing books to charm me. Many leave me most disenchanted. But, though I lose a few skirmishes, I eventually win the war.

There are, of course, the hares you can't ensnare. They won't be caught dead within a library. So we bring the library to them—through our "Miss Bookmobile" (as we have dubbed the lovely lady who comes to us at regular intervals with her bagful of books meant to move the most immobile reluctant). She talks of these not as if to boys in a classroom, but as if to campers 'round a fire. She weaves a web of silent awe that books can say such wondrous things . . . of *D-Day* and *Shark* . . . for those whose tastes run to blood; of *Body Building* and *Weight Lifting* for those to whom a thing of beauty and a joy forever is the Body in bloom; of a book called *1975: and the Changes to Come* (by Arnold Barach) for those who dream of a future better than their here and now. When she stops, invariably, there rings out a cheer from those who had come to hear and sneer. And boys gang up around the desk grabbing lists with more of the same kinds of books just described; and vows will be muttered, low but sincere—"sounds like a good deal, that library."

It is, in fact, at our Book Fair,[1] at which for three days, while classes are canceled and our boys come to browse and buzz and buy (or not) from the many thousands of books we have brought together in one vast treasure house, that many students will begin to feel about authors the way Holden Caulfield, you remember in *Catcher in the Rye,* feels about Isak Dinesen whose *Out of Africa* was one of those books that "really knocks me out—it's a book when you're all done reading it, you wish the author that wrote it was a terrific friend of yours and you could call him up on the phone whenever you feel like it—I wouldn't mind calling this Isak Dinesen up—."

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[1] Conducted by Mogr Book Distributors.

My boys wouldn't mind calling Quentin Reynolds up, after reading his *F.B.I.;* or John Steinbeck after his *Red Pony;* or a dozen writers who have developed many dozens of themes that ring so true to our readers they buy, on an average, of 1,000 books that range from the simplest Landmark to the subtlest Shakespeare.

And, though no teachers are snooping around with a "Read this. It's good for you," they *are* standing by in the wings for some quite necessary guidance. No matter. Interest will help them o'erleap such barriers.

The fun really starts with the book reports that, in a week or two, begin to be heard and seen in classes throughout the building. Not about "Where's the climax" or "What's the denouement." Our boys just don't care. They know what they love or hate; what gets them mad or sad or glad.

Now that the fair was over, and the appetite whetted, I began to observe, ever so occasionally, especially after lunch, a paperback under the arm of a lad or two where earlier in the day there had been a lunch bag. Boys were beginning to walk off their hero sandwiches with short strolls to the neighborhood Paperback Gallery . . . and sometimes bringing back a sample or two. Soon we discovered the Teen Age Book Club titles caught the fancy of many. We were beginning to establish a rapport between children and books, helping many of our boys buy them cheaply, start their own libraries.

For those who will still not sail to *Treasure Island,* no matter how tempting the call from book fairs and storytellers . . . and libraries . . . and Lively Textbooks, we find still another way—the 21-inch window through which so many of our students view their world. To many school people this window is a one-eyed Cyclops that has mesmerized a nation's youth. Not to us. To us it is an Aladdin's lamp. Touch it and you are transported down to the denizens of the deep, across the surface of the earth, up to where only the astronauts dare. Where or when in all recorded history can horizons be so broadened by so simple an act as a flip of a dial! Where or when in all our teaching experience could so many youngsters, thousands of miles from Broadway, and even more thousands away from the Old Vic, sit in their living room and watch Sir Laurence Olivier in *Richard III,* and then go to their libraries to pick up the play . . . some for the pure pleasure of reading it 'in toto,' and one boy just to relive the full flavor of the one scene he really caught—"You know. . . . Where the poor guy is all alone . . . and he can't escape . . . and he yells 'A horse . . . a horse. My kingdom for a horse.'" We say—*Touch.*

If you watch Leonard Bernstein why not read his *Joy of Music.* If you watch Melville's *Billy Budd,* why not read Jean Gould's *Young Mariner, Melville.* Where do we find these titles? Easy. All the major networks now supply me regularly. The results are happy. Let TV announce a classic, and we quickly stock up in advance for a heavier demand. Let the Kennedys play a game of touch football and still another page in the encyclopedias will become dog-eared by use, as our kids try to learn more of the seemingly strange way their President finds to relax and play. "TV is a tremendous motivational force," Miss Virginia Mathews of the ALA has correctly noted.

I have talked at length about a body of youth that concerns me, as I think it might well concern us all. For, there is a great Cultural Divide that separates it from the Middle - Class - White - Collar - oriented pattern we have designed. It is a Divide through which millions of young people fall as they fail in school. My aim has been to bridge the chasm through the power of positive reading. Only in the faith that there are no "second class" citizens among us—a faith cherished pridefully for nearly two centuries, can we work to advantage with the millions we know as "the disadvantaged."

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3. Our Disadvantaged Older Children

DOMINIC THOMAS
Detroit Public Schools

WHILE THERE can be little doubt that the effects of social deprivation are cumulative, the characteristics of older disadvantaged children are quite similar to those of their younger counterparts. In this paper the research findings on such children, as summarized in the *Review of Educational Research*, December, 1965, form the basis for discussing their home environments, language developments, patterns of intellectual functions, and motivations and aspirations.

Home Environment

Listed among the research on the family and neighborhood environment of socially disadvantaged children were the following features:

1. About one sixth of the breadwinners were unemployed.
2. Few children regularly ate a meal with their parents.
3. Parents were usually satisfied with their children's progress in school, so long as they were not in trouble.
4. Homes had few books; children were read to less frequently and spoke less with their parents.
5. Children exhibited a fear of parental authority and a dependence on siblings and peers.
6. Parents were inaccessible to chil-

dren's communication.

7. Girls were overprotected; discipline of boys was inadequate.
8. Strong mother-dominated environments were more prevalent.
9. Lack of systematic stimulation plus the presence of much noise fostered inattention and poor concentration.
10. Parents reacted to children's misbehavior in terms of immediate consequences of action, not on an interpretation of their intent.
11. Mothers expected husbands to impose restraints upon the children rather than to be supportive.
12. Fathers felt that child-rearing was the responsibility of the wife.
13. Families tended not to frequently participate in group activities.

Gordon summarized the home and family environment as being ". . . noisy, disorganized, overcrowded and austere, . . . lacking many of the cultural artifacts often associated with the development of school readiness, such as books, art work, variety of toys, and self-instructional equipment. Adult models . . . have been seen as being incongruous with the demands of the school, . . . and the parents of these children often have been reported as failing to support their children's academic pursuits" *(1)*.

Language Development

Jane Raph summarizes the characteristics of disadvantaged children's language developments with the following statement: "Research to date indicates that the process of language acquisition for socially disadvantaged children, in contrast to that of middle-class children, is more subject (a) to a lack of vocal stimulation during infancy, (b) to a paucity of experiences in conversation with more verbally mature adults in the first three or four years of life, (c) to severe limitations in the opportunities to develop mature cognitive behavior, and (d) to the types of emotional encounters which result in the restricting of the child's conceptual and verbal skills. Distinctive qualities of their language and speech include (a) a deficit in the auditory-vocal modality greater than in the visual-motor areas; (b) a meagerness of quantity and quality of verbal expression, which serves to depress intellectual functioning as they grow older; and (c) a slower rate and lower level of articulatory maturation" *(2)*.

Perceptual Styles and Patterns of Intellectual Function

Gordon noted that disadvantaged children have perceptual styles and habits which are inadequate or irrelevant to academic efficiency. He listed the following characteristics from the research:

1. The absence of any high degree of dependence on verbal and written language for cognitive clues was prevalent.
2. Traditional receptive and expressive modes have not been adopted.
3. Concentration and persistence needed on learning tasks were lacking.
4. Auditory discrimination and recognition of perceptual similarities were relatively poor.
5. Slowness appeared as a feature of cognitive function.
6. A "so what" attitude toward difficult problems resulted in a proportionate decrease in learning overtime.
7. Feelings of inadequacy were displayed in school.
8. Dependence was more on external as opposed to internal control.
9. Low self-esteem, high incidence of behavioral disturbance, and distorted interpersonal relationships characterized ego development.

Motivation and Aspiration

The research on motivation and aspiration revealed that motivation in socially disadvantaged children was frequently inconsistent with the demands and goals of formal education. The nature of their aspirations was usually consistent with their perceptions of the availability of opportunity and reward. Symbolic rewards and postponements of gratification appeared to be ineffective as a means for motivation. Drive was present, but its direction may not be complementary to academic achievement. Socially disadvantaged children tended to be less highly motivated and had lower aspiration for academic and vocational achievement than did their middle- and upper-class school ers. High levels of aspiration and positive attitudes toward school were only frequently encountered in lower socio-onomic groups.

emedial Programs

Characteristics of socially disadvantaged hildren should be used as information or designing meaningful curricula. While there is agreement on the general haracteristics of such children, it must be ointed out that individually they demontrate widely differing characteristics.

John I. Lee indicated that, "Teachers and schools must, at an early age, discover and identify each child, and must comprehend his development, his individual capacities, and his needs." School services, ". . . must be provided promptly to remove or minimize each child's disability and to educate him 'over' or 'around' or 'in spite of' his limitations . . ." *(3).*

Reading Centers

For example, the failure of a considerable number of culturally disadvantaged children to achieve reading proficiency suggests that a need exists for diagnostic, evaluative, and remedial services for these children. Currently Detroit is in the process of establishing experimental remedial-reading centers. The purposes of the centers are (1) To reduce the extent of reading retardation of socially disadvantaged children from low-income families in grades 4 through 12, and (2) To gain further knowledge and skill for the remediation of reading deficiencies for large numbers of disadvantaged children and youth.

In order to accomplish the objectives as outlined above, five reading centers have been established to give intensive remedial services to disadvantaged pupils who are seriously below their potential in reading achievement. A request for Federal funds to establish the centers was approved under the Elementary and Secondary School Act. Sixty-four public schools and forty-nine non-public schools in three (of nine) administrative regions in Detroit were included. These region areas are characterized by older and often substandard multiple-dwelling housing and populations below the city mean in family income, occupational status, and adult-education level. School data reveal a higher dropout rate, higher degree of overageness for grade placement, and a greater reading retardation for pupils in these regions than for the city as a whole.

Each of the three administrative regions has two centers: one to accommodate elementary-junior high students and, the other, a senior-high unit. On the senior-high level, the centers are housed in high-school buildings where space permits. Elementary-junior high classes are held in mobile units, 20 feet wide by 40 feet long. These have been placed on selected sites adjacent to public schools. At the present time, four such mobile units adjoin each of three elementary schools and one senior-high school. Each elementary-junior high unit serves approximately 18 to 25 public and non-public schools. The transportable buildings provide office and classroom facilities, and air conditioning makes it possible for them to operate during the summer months. Small classrooms are equipped with a wide variety of multi-level books and SRA reading laboratories. Controlled readers, tape recorders, filmstrip projectors, and other visual equipment are provided in each room.

Staff

The staff of the reading centers is unique. Each center is made up of experienced Detroit public-school personnel, especially chosen for this assignment, and includes an administrator, a reading diagnostician, a social therapist, a psychologist, and six reading teachers. If there is evidence of need, more specialized professional help (such as, services of an audiologist, neurologist, ophthalmologist, or psychiatrist) is available. In this way, the centers provide thorough diagnosis of a child's reading disability and correction of physical, emotional, or neurological defects suspected of being contributing causes of this reading retardation.

Selection of Pupils

The students are selected from certain public and non-public schools in the project regions. A principal or teacher from a participating school may refer a student from grade 4 through 12 who is reading at a level which is significantly below his measured or estimated-learning capacity. In general, the criteria for selection are as follows: the student must be reading one or more years below his grade level; he must possess an I.Q. of 80 or above; and he may not be a candidate for a special-education program. After his referral, comprehensive diagnostic tests are administered by the reading diagnostician. The diagnostician may, or may not, enlist the services of the social therapist or psychologist, depending upon the analysis of the testing data. Referring schools are then notified of test results and the names of the students to be admitted to the center. After parental permission has been obtained, the student is assigned to a class and is provided with bus transportation from the participating school to the center.

Schedule of Classes

Students who attend elementary-junior high centers spend one hour, two days per week in class; students who attend senior-high centers spend one class period, four days per week. Small class size of eight to ten students enables the reading diagnostician to design a remedial program individually tailored to meet the specific needs of each student. Adequate time for planning and evaluating is provided since the teacher has only four classes per day on the elementary-junior high level and five classes on the senior-high level. No classes are scheduled on Wednesdays, this day being set aside for in-service training, staff appraisals of student progress, conferences with parents, and conferences with teachers of children from the participating schools. It is not possible to estimate the length of time that a child receives instruction at the center because kinds and degree of reading retardation will vary with the individual student. However, before a student is released from the center, all concerned personnel must concur that he is ready to operate without further instruction from the center.

Evaluation

In order to measure the value of such services, a tentative-evaluation design has been formulated by the Research Department of the Detroit schools. This design includes measurement in terms of the project's expected outcomes (product evaluation) and in terms of the services provided and the methods used (process evaluation). The product evaluation will be based on a random sampling of experimental- and control-group pupils. The experimental group will consist of pupils who have had remedial instruction at the project centers; the control group will consist of eligible pupils who have not had remedial instruction at the project centers. The process evaluation will include a continuing examination of the specific objectives of the project and of methods, materials, facilities, services, and staff effectiveness. The main purpose of the process evaluation is to identify changes that should be introduced to increase the effectiveness of the project in attaining the general objectives.

It is the hope of the project staff that as the result of their efforts pupils' attitudes toward themselves and reading will improve, reading-achievement levels will be raised, and the centers will prove beneficial to instructional personnel of participating schools.

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D. SENIOR HIGH LEVEL

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1. Early Identification of High School Dropouts

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ONE OF THE most vital issues in the public schools today is the school dropout. Much has been written concerning the identification of the potential dropout, how the dropout is different from the child who graduates from high school, and how he is unable to obtain an occupation or sustain himself in it.

Reading has been identified as a factor which differentiates the graduate from the dropout. The Penty study[1] of 1956 concluded that 50 per cent of the poor readers dropped out before graduation, while only 14.5 per cent of the good readers dropped out. These computed percentages and reading performances were found at the time the students dropped out of school.

One contention of the study that was conducted at Evansville, Indiana last year was that differences in reading and other factors exist and may be discovered in the elementary school. In effect, the study maintained that the potential dropout can be identified much earlier than high school and that preventive adjustments must take place early in his educational career, if he is to complete high school.

In general, dropout studies have shown vast differences existing between dropouts and graduates. The dropouts tended to be of lower socio-economic status. They tended to have poorer attendance records and were from more mobile, less stable families. Some studies have shown them to have more siblings and to be in the younger half of their class chronologically. The dropout has been characterized as being less academically inclined and less intelligent. In general, a greater proportion of males have been dropouts than would be expected from the male-female ratio in the public school population.

A second contention of the Evansville study was that because reading seemingly had a great effect on persistence in school, perhaps it could be used to define different types of dropouts. Dropout groups based on reading success in the elementary school (when compared to similarly formed groups of graduates) might present a different pattern of significant factors. It was hoped that such an approach would lead away from solutions so commonly suggested as panaceas for dealing with the dropout problem.

Statement of the Problem

Last year's dropout study was conducted to examine the relationship between good and poor reading graduates and dropouts with regard to nine factors which had been identified by previous research to be significant to dropping out of high school. The nine selected factors for the study were: socio-economic status, school absence, family mobility, starting school age, home stability, number of siblings, academic success, sex, and intelligence.

The study had three parts: (1) the investigation of the significant difference between good and poor reading graduates and dropouts on each of the nine selected factors, (2) the investigation of the independence of each of the nine factors, and (3) the investigation of the distribution of good and poor readers in the graduate and dropout sections of the sample.

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[1] Ruth C. Penty. *Reading Ability and High School Drop-Outs*, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, 1956.

Procedure of the Study

The two most recent classes to finish at North High School, Evansville, Indiana were selected for this study. These classes were reassembled as they would have been in their respective sixth-grade years. The combined classes were separated into a graduate and a dropout section. A one-third random sample of the graduate section was drawn. Elementary school permanent records were obtained for both the graduate and dropout sections, and a standardized sixth-grade reading score was recorded for each child. The dropout and graduate sections were then subdivided into four operational groups: (1) good reading graduates, (2) poor reading graduates, (3) good reading dropouts, and (4) poor reading dropouts.

A distribution of reading scores was run. Poor readers were those students whose reading scores were in the lower 30 per cent of the sample; good readers were those students with reading scores in the upper 30 per cent of the sample. In actuality, the poor readers obtained a grade level score of 5.0 or lower on the standardized reading battery given during the first month of school in the sixth grade, while good readers scored 6.0 or higher on the same battery.

Findings of the Study

The poor reading graduate group was significantly different from the poor reading dropout group on only three of the nine selected factors. The poor reading dropouts when compared to the poor reading graduates contained more students of lower socio-economic status, more students with poorer academic grades, and more females than would have been expected to occur by chance. However, the two groups were equivalent on the other six factors—intelligence, school absence, family mobility, family stability, starting school age, and number of siblings.

On the other hand, when good reading graduates and good reading dropouts were compared, they were significantly different on all of the factors except sex. The good reading dropouts, when compared to the good reading graduates, were of lower socio-economic status, had more school absences, had more mobile families, had more brothers and sisters, had lower measured intelligence, had less stable families, and made lower grades in school.

When looking at the total sample to study the interrelationship between the selected factors, school absence and starting school age appeared to be unrelated to the other factors. Intelligence, academic success, and family stability appeared to be related to many of the other factors. Socio-economic status, number of siblings, and sex appeared to have a definite relationship to more than one other factor.

The Evansville study showed that 27 per cent of the dropouts were good readers, while 45.6 per cent were poor readers. Of the graduates, 42.9 per cent were good readers and only 20.6 per cent were poor readers.

Implications and Recommendations of the Study

The good readers who drop out of school seem to be extremely different from the good readers who persist, but the poor readers who drop out and the poor readers who persist seem to be quite similar. The fact that reading ability does define different types of dropouts would also suggest that no panacea could be expected to salvage all dropouts.

Low reading performance in the elementary school should be considered an important precipitating factor to dropping out of high school. The Evansville study points up the important relationship between early adjustment in reading and continuing school success.

Sex ratios among the poor readers in this study reversed themselves from other dropout studies. It might be suspected that this was due to the breadth of vocational course offerings presented to male students in this comprehensive high school. Poor reading males who persist may do so primarily because course offerings are more vocationally oriented or less dependent on reading ability.

Certain recommendations might be in order for educators from the results of this and other studies. The identification of potential dropouts should begin in the elementary school. Intensive early reading instruction should be considered for children who have shown signs of being unable to learn to read under normal classroom procedures and who could be described as potential dropouts. For many potential dropouts school services other than instruction would apparently offer more positive answers to the problem. This is especially true of the child who is learning to read adequately in the elementary school.

Longitudinal studies should be initiated by public school people to discover if changes in curriculum offerings or altered patterns of academic success can offset family situations which contribute to dropping out of school.

The Evansville study should be replicated in other areas to determine which factors appear to be constant and which will change from large city to small town or from comprehensive to non-comprehensive high schools.

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2. Reducing the Number of Dropouts

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SIX MONTHS AGO A 25-year-old gentleman by the name of Carl stopped in my office and said, "I dropped out of school in the eighth grade. The world is passing me by. I can't read a newspaper or a magazine. I find it impossible to read street signs in an unfamiliar city. I need to learn to read so I can get a job and hold it. Will you help me?" He made a further statement which has stuck with me. "My teachers always seemed most happy when I was willing to sit quietly in the back of the room."

Shortly after Carl and I talked, the elementary supervisor from his school system paid me a visit. The conversation got around to Carl. The supervisor was deeply concerned about students like Carl, and he felt something in the school life of all the Carls in his district must be altered.

In a sense, this concern over the high school dropout has become extremely widespread. Concern about unsuccessful students is most likely to occur in the magnitude we have seen it in recent years within an educational system based on the value structure of the free society. It has occurred because education in this country is based on a psychology which values the uniqueness of the individual and a philosophy which recognizes the importance of education for all members of the society. It has also occurred because educators become concerned when the schools in which they serve fail with significantly large segments of their population. In contrast, in a recent article entitled "Dropouts in Russia," Bryce Zender describes a school structure in which "the school remained emotionally indifferent to his (the dropout's) fate" *(1)*. To paraphrase Robert Frost—and that makes all the difference.

From the recent flood of editorials, magazine articles, and books on the subject, as well as the implementation of federal legislation and newly developed local programs for the educationally and socially disadvantaged, one thing is quite evident: we are no longer indifferent to the fate of the dropout. Our theoretical concern for the importance of each individual and his education is nowhere more vividly gaining expression than in programs directly and indirectly developed to salvage dropouts.

If we have a fault at this time, it is that we lack the dynamic educational structuring necessary to implement longitudinal programs that get at the heart of the matter. Rather, we tend to identify characteristics and treat symptoms. This type of treatment may be interpreted in at least two ways: either we are still searching for a panacea, or we are attempting to alter a complex situation too quickly. Both of these alternatives are rather typical of early educational reaction to problems in the past.

Educational research invariably brings us to a point where we must change our *modus operandi,* and yet we never seem to realize that widespread patterns which need to be altered radically must be dealt with in a dynamic manner and that complex problems defy simple, immediate solutions. The dropout problem is both widespread and radical in its demands, and its very nature is complex. In addition, it is a problem that begins to appear early and one which compounds itself over the educational life of the student. Therefore, it must be dealt with from its inception rather than merely at its culmination.

Characteristics of the Dropout

Research has established, as did teacher opinion before the research, that potential dropouts have distinct general characteristics. These characteristics appear early in the life of the child—many, before the dropout's first school enrollment; most, before the end of the primary grades. The dropout, while being as intelligent as his competing counterpart, is generally found to come from a family with lower socio-economic status. He generally has had irregular school attendance and high family mobility. He began school at an early age; his home was usually marred with instability, he generally had a large number of siblings; he experienced a lack of academic success; and he has more often been a boy than a girl.

Other research has pointed out that reading disability is an extremely important factor in students who drop out of school, and this disability shows up early in elementary school. In addition, reading disability oftentimes changes the pattern of the other factors previously mentioned; *i.e.,* a poor reader may drop out in spite of a lack of other detrimental characteristics.

The question might be asked, "What value is there in being able to identify a potential dropout early in the elementary school?" This question is one with which more educators must begin to deal. The bulk of all the programs which we have conducted in order to change school-holding power has taken place at the junior-high or secondary-school level. The simple reply to the question might well be, "We identify these characteristics early so that we can begin to change the educational reaction pattern much earlier." To have a lasting impact we must begin earlier—in the elementary school or perhaps even pre-school.

Dropout Characteristics and School Responsibility

It is obvious that schools have little direct control over socio-economic status, high family mobility, home stability, or number of siblings. Schools do, however, control to a great extent patterns of success, a student's marks, his curriculum, and a major portion of the goals and objectives which are formed for him. To a lesser degree, we influence his attitudes, his self-image, and his motivation to continue his education.

If schools are to alter the basic dropout

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pattern, they must directly manipulate the factors in the areas over which they have some control, while indirectly aiding other social institutions and families with other factors. Invariably, schools will have to attempt to offset many of the negative factors they cannot control by establishing positive factors in the areas in which they can have some effect.

Formulating Long-Range Programs

Schools must establish long-range programs rather than quickly formed panacean programs. Effective long-range programs must recognize the importance of certain necessary premises.

The long-range program must be preventative as well as corrective. That is, it must attempt to find a way out for potential dropouts through the adjustment of school curricula, while offering a road back to those who have already dropped out through the establishment of supplementary programs for retraining.

A long-range program must be formulated to combat the problem early. The program must recognize that students do not just one day drop out of school; this predictable conclusion has been in the making since the student's early school years or before. For this reason, adjustments in curriculum, adjustments in success patterns, and adjustments in school offerings must take place early.

A long-range program must reconstitute the goals and objectives of potential dropouts. To a degree, educators must decide what is essential for the student who finds school persistence a problem. Educators must be willing to put forth a basic core of subject matter which is felt to be essential for students who are potential dropouts. The locally developed goals and objectives must in some way relate to the requirements which are essential for successfully competing in the labor market.

The long-range program must be based on a more effective individual diagnosis of skills. Educators must do more than pay lip service to meeting the educational needs of all students. This point means, among other things, they must know where a student presently is in the skills he needs to master. Since academic success depends to a great extent upon reading, mastery of reading skills should be accomplished prior to instruction that requires these reading skills. That is, we must search early for students who are not successfully learning to read, and we must change their curriculum orientation to a program that either allows them to get intensive and successful reading instruction before they are asked to use these skills in other education ventures or we must take them through a curriculum that does not require these reading skills. This kind of a decision is one which must be made by educators and which should be based on individual diagnosis.

The long-range program developed should involve all educational personnel. Each school might set up a planning commission for developing holding power in their school community. Such a commission might be composed of elementary and secondary guidance counselors, classroom teachers, vocational and administrative personnel, and curriculum specialists. The primary function of this commission would be to design a curriculum directed at students who have dropped out of school but wish to return, and also at the early identified potential dropouts.

A long-range program must be based on a shared knowledge of social factors and conditions. There is research to indicate that not only do educators and parents not realize how difficult it is for dropouts to obtain and hold employment but also that dropouts themselves do not realize how complex and difficult it is until they have gotten into the job market. Labor reports show that the difficulty in the world of work will persist and become more difficult in the next few years because of continued mechanization and automation. Parents, educators, and students must become aware of the difficult situation in which the dropout finds himself.

The long-range program must provide flexibility within the educational setting. Educators must become more and more used to allowing each student to flexibly elect programs which will be of value to him. This plan might include programs in industrial training (perhaps at the elementary-school level), home econom-

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ics and job-counseling courses offered at a much earlier time, or functionally taught language-arts courses including all of the communicative skills which are felt to be essential to the student who expects to terminate his education at the end of high school or before. Many courses might be offered to some students as a regular text-book-centered course and to others who cannot read well enough to assimilate the material as a programed course utilizing tape-recorded materials.

Each long-range program that is established should contain a basis for its careful evaluation. Evaluation of the program should include a method for studying the long-range holding power of the school as well as a way of analyzing the attitudes of the student body and their abilities to be assimilated into the job market.

Initiation and Leadership for the Program

Whenever a school or community member is dissatisfied with the educational misfortune of one student or a group of students, a program to increase holding power may well be in order. Concern for others is an essential key for those who must initiate programs. Those who are most concerned should attempt to initiate and help to lead. Hopefully this initiation and leadership will come from school people, for their job is closest to the solution of the problem. This closeness also enhances their ability to recognize the need for a program and their desire to see a solution developed. Leadership may come from a guidance counselor or a classroom teacher. It may come from a principal, superintendent, or vocational-education director. Many programs have gained impetus from groups of interested parents, from legislative provisions of the federal government, or from the action of local service agencies. Needless to say, all programs which have been successful, or are being successful, have involved the close cooperation of both school and other community personnel.

Just as Carl had a reading problem, he also had problems of another sort—that of a boss who expected more than he could produce, or the "almost boss" who didn't hire him because he had no high school diploma, or the teacher who had no means of stimulating or redirecting his desire to learn. Complacency must be replaced by concern at every level. Ideas and initiative will then have the necessary impact to successfully reduce the magnitude of today's dropout problem. We can never hope to alter the problem as long as any Carl can say, "My teachers always seemed most happy when I was willing to sit quietly in the back of the room."

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2. The Role of Personality Defenses in Reading

JULES C. ABRAMS

READING has been defined as the "reconstruction of the facts behind the symbols." This definition points out very clearly that reading involves much more than simply the ability to recognize words; it also entails the ability of the reader to bring his experiences to the printed page and to interpret the symbols (that is, the words) in the light of these experiences. The process of visual perception is one in which stimuli are taken in by a complicated receiving system; this receiving system is structured by basic needs and interests of the organism modified by experiences long past and set by experiences of the recent past. Therefore, it is quite clear that in evaluating the process of reading comprehension (important at all levels, but particularly at the secondary school level), we must be concerned not only with the intellectual functions, but also with the emotional factors which facilitate or impede these functions.

In the attempt to understand the nature of personality disturbance and particularly how various emotional problems may bring about learning difficulty, the emphasis in psychology has shifted from the study of basic drives and strivings to how well the individual can handle his unconscious conflicts. In other words, the emphasis is now on the whole concept of ego defense. In the normal process of growing up each individual experiences, for realistic or unrealistic reasons, certain ideas and feelings which are unacceptable and threatening to him. He comes to anticipate that certain impulses, if given any opportunity for discharge, will get altogether out of hand. The pressure of these impulses and the prospect of discharging them stimulates reactions of anxiety. At later stages of development, other painful feelings, such as guilt, shame, and disgust, may also become connected with these rejected impulses. As a result, each individual must set up defenses in order to ward off the threat of his disturbing and unacceptable ideas and feelings. In brief, defense is understood to refer to any psychological operation that is intended to block discharge of threatening, rejected impulses and thereby to avoid the painful emotional consequences of such discharge.

In the normal process of development, the nature of the ego defenses employed by the individual—that is, their flexibility and adaptiveness—often play an important role in determining whether a learning problem will occur. For example, if too much of the mental energies is bound up in defenses—that is, in keeping disturbing impulses out of consciousness—then the student will have little left for the external learning situation. Experience has demonstrated that it is the individual's attention span—that is, his ability to attend effortlessly to the environment—that suffers first under the blows of anxiety and intense feelings. As long as he has defenses to cope with these impulses, however, that is, if his concentration is relatively well preserved, then he has the mental energies to replace the impaired free receptivity by voluntary effort, and he can learn. It is only when attention and concentration, both, are crippled—that is, when the defenses are severely threatened, that learning becomes nearly impossible.

The specific defense utilized by the individual also plays a paramount role in influencing learning, again particularly at the secondary school level. If the student has relied and is relying upon massive repression as his major defense, then he is necessarily placed in the position where it becomes exceedingly difficult for him to acquire facts and to accumulate knowledge in accordance with his intellectual potential. Knowledge cannot be assimilated unless it is assimilated with other freely available knowledge; and once repression plays a pathological role, it tends to become ever more extensive, and with it, the accumulation of knowledge is limited.

Other individuals utilize isolation as their major defense—they keep threatening ideas separated from one another or they keep their emotions rigidly repressed. In this manner, they stifle all fantasy and feeling. By denying their emotions and their creative urges, they deny the driving force within them with which they could implement their wishes and make them actions. Other students rely excessively on reaction formation—they not only repress a threatening impulse, but they change it into its opposite. If they unconsciously feel hostility, then, on a conscious level, everything is sweetness and light. These are the youngsters whose defenses free them from uncomfortable conscious anxiety, but whose defenses also make them passive, compliant, and inadequate. They are unable to differentiate between what is constructively aggressive or destructively aggressive, and they simply have to forbid any expression of aggressiveness whatsoever.

There are other defenses, of course, which do play an important role in learning ability. What cannot be emphasized too strongly is that all learning is affected by emotional factors as well as intellectual ones. What seems to be of most significance are the specific ego defenses, the unique means that each individual chooses to cope with his inner conflicts to allow him to function efficiently in the learning situation.

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3. What Can We Do for the Disabled Reader in the Senior High School?

ESTHER FOXE

MANY FACTORS, some obvious, others not so obvious, must be considered in the initiation of a reading program at secondary level. Some factors are unique to a particular school but others are common to most school situations.

1. Needs

It is essential to ascertain the needs of the school, as these needs should set the purposes, goals, aims, and scope of the reading program. Therefore, the first step is to survey the needs stated by school personnel and the needs revealed by standardized tests, pupil records, conferences, and observations. Guided by a needs survey one can set a definition of "disabled reader" practicable to the particular situation. It may include only those of improvement potential who are reading below grade level, or may include also those reading above grade level but not up to their potential. The survey can guide decision upon emphases of the program—developmental, corrective, or remedial—and upon immediate as well as future goals.

2. Practical Considerations

Certain practical considerations affect considerably the character of programs it is possible to offer. Availability of particular students and personnel affect the possibilities of grouping students with similar needs and of comparable reading levels. Although scheduling problems may necessitate second-choice grouping, a paramount consideration is maintenance of consistent and intensive instruction—at least two, and preferably three, times per week—for students included.

Other considerations are availability of physical facilities, budget and materials; availability of test results and records; and size of school system in relation to functions of the reading staff.

3. Procedures

Smoothness and effectiveness of the program will be facilitated by establishment of procedures for:

a. referrals—It is helpful to establish a system for referral of students not discovered upon initial screening.

b. conferences — Although informal conferences with teachers are usually most effective, routinely-scheduled conferences anent pupil diagnoses and progress may hasten cooperation from staff members who might otherwise be slow to participate.

c. diagnosis — Decisions need to be made on the quantity and quality of diagnostic work to be done in relation to the time available. Standardized tests are invaluable for rough screening but more intensive diagnosis is advisable for students having remedial-type problems.

d. reports—Especially in a new program, periodic reports help the reading staff to check on needs and progress as well as to keep other school personnel informed. Excellent reporting times are at the completion of the initial survey of needs and when re-grouping is considered. Availability of secretarial help and administrative preferences affect the nature of reporting.

4. Work with Allied Fields

Essential to an effective program is establishment of free interchange between and reciprocal contributions by the reading staff and the health, guidance, speech therapy, and library personnel on elementary and secondary level. In addition, the reading staff can supply resources to nonprofessional groups such as the P.T.A.

5. Differences Between the New and the More-Established Reading Programs

New and established reading programs differ mainly in that new-program participants must *set* rather than *follow* precedents. Proceeding most carefully, they must ascertain what is wanted as well as what is needed in the reading area. Long-range goals may be set but it is usually wise to meet some of the immediate and pressing needs as well. The reading staff must inform other personnel as to the possible functions of reading specialists. Enlistment of the cooperation of other personnel should be sought in establishing criteria for admission of students to the special reading program as well as in planning other aspects of this program.

6. The School, Framework, Climate, and Philosophy

The reading specialists must thoroughly understand the school framework, climate, and philosophy, which the reading program must fit. Reading schedules must not conflict with other schedules in time or space allotment. School climate and philosophy affect what may be expected and what is desired from the reading program. For example, an autocratically-oriented school might expect a program that is narrow in scope, rigidly administered, and quite limited. To attempt more would be dangerous. On the other hand, a democratically-oriented school might be anxious for a broad reading program, be grateful for any help the reading specialist can give, and expect much hard work from him. An effective reading program must also be integrated with content-area programs, especially those in language arts. While one must move cautiously, and in consistency with school philosophy in a new program, he should not be so cautious as to accomplish little.

Thus, in a new program, one must assess (1) the *needs*—to set up the initial program, (2) the *available resources*—to make best use of them and to avoid duplication, and (3) the *school climate and philosophy*—to minimize conflicts, establish communication and rapport, set up workable procedures, and lay foundations for future expansion.

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2. Characteristics of Sound Remedial Reading Instruction

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WHAT do we mean when we speak of remedial instruction? We might think of its as instruction designed to overcome weaknesses in any aspect of the reading process. These weaknesses are present because initial or subsequent instruction did not "take." Or they are there because little or no instruction was provided. Inherent in this discussion is the assumption that whatever the reason for the difficulties the students can profit from instruction.

Many school people operate on the belief there are two types of reading instruction. One they call developmental and the other remedial. *Developmental reading* instruction is offered pupils who are progressing satisfactorily. Instruction is based upon the concept of readiness for learning and the sequential development of reading skills. *Remedial reading,* on the other hand, is reserved for seriously disabled readers who are operating on levels roughly two or more years below their capabilities. Methods of instruction vary but whatever their nature remedial reading is different from developmental reading in methods and materials.

At the outset, I should indicate how I feel about developmental and remedial reading instruction. Insofar as methodology is concerned, there is no basic difference between developmental and remedial reading. This is to say that programs of instruction deemed suitable for students who are progressing satisfactorily are equally suitable for those who are not achieving to the extent of which they are capable. The contention that "good" instruction has failed students with real reading problems and that other means must be sought for them cannot be supported by any research with which I am familiar. Atypical students, perhaps more than others, need the most highly-skilled help we can provide. I should add that children with real problems due to some organicity may demand different techniques from those followed with children whose difficulties originate in the environment, but even in such cases there is no real evidence of their validity.

There is one other point I think I need to make. Developmental reading procedures probably have to be refined if they are to be successful with poor readers. Programs of less than this degree of sophistication cannot be expected to meet the challenge poor readers offer.

Principles of Instruction

The assumption that teaching is to be viewed as a science as well as an art is one of the basic ideas underlying this paper. The craft of teaching reading—"developmental" and "remedial"—rests upon practices which are derived from psychology.

In place of reading methods which reflect a "shotgun" approach to reading disabilities I prefer to substitute methods based upon well-known principles of learning. With this philosophy one may accommodate to a variety of methods which can withstand evaluation against these principles.

Learners' Needs. It is quite clear that if we are to help the high school student with reading difficulties we must know what they are. It is not enough to say that he is a poor reader or that he doesn't understand what he reads. Anything short of an evaluation which pinpoints strengths and weaknesses represents the "shotgun" approach of which I spoke earlier.

Evaluation consisting of standardized and informal testing (and I personally place greater confidence in the latter) should *precede* instruction. It is what we learn about the student that becomes the basis for instruction. We adjust, modify and change as progress or plateaus in learning are noted.

Successful Experiences. High school students with reading difficulties have experienced failures in varying degrees and some are not likely to be highly motivated. Most of them want help desperately. We must do whatever we can to prevent new failures.

Therefore we provide instruction through materials—narrative and expository—*at the level the student can profit from it.* This means we must know his instructional level. We also must know his independent level in order to provide books which he will want to read for pleasure.

Proper pacing also will help to insure successful learning. Too much too rapidly can overwhelm. Too little too slowly can enervate. I suggest you start out slowly and step up the pace as progress occurs.

Guided Learning. A good "remedial" reading program offers careful instruction followed by meaningful practice. Trial and error learning is avoided. Students are not asked to perform unless they have been taught or are known to have the ability to do so. For example, to ask students to draw a conclusion from a selection is not the same as teaching them how. If their skill in drawing conclusions is low, no amount of asking will enable them to respond satisfactorily. Also, it is wasteful to require them to practice the skill until they know enough about it to realize successes.

Meaningful Learning. Meaningful learning is preferred to rote learning. It would be my guess that many reading failures were the products of meaningless teaching programs.

There are many practices you can observe to make your corrective reading instruction meaningful. You can prepare the students for the reading exercise. You can provide a structure into which elements can be fitted. You can introduce reading skills in sequence and order of difficulty. Inherent in sequential learning is the principle of starting with what students know to teach them what they don't know.

Interference. Students who are reading failures need the best learning climate possible. They seem to prosper with teachers who are patient and understanding, firm but not critical. Harshness, ridicule, sarcasm have no place with typical learners let alone those with reading problems.

Another form of interference may be found in the teaching process. The presentation of more material than students can manage only serves to inhibit learning.

Interference may occur when learning is incomplete and responses different from those expected are required. An example of such interference is the simultaneous introduction of words which are similar in appearance but demand different responses, e.g., through and though, while and white. The way to avoid interference with learning is to work on each word separately and introduce the other only after one has been mastered.

Transfer. The application of reading skills to a variety of materials and situations is more likely to occur where learning has been meaningful. The students recognize that new settings contain familiar elements with which they have been working. We can increase their chances of such recognition by giving them opportunities to practice reading skills under different conditions and putting their learning to use.

A way to facilitate transfer is to use materials students are required to read for instructional purposes. Selected portions of textbooks and supplementary materials can be used to teach any number of word identification, meaning and study skills. Another is to practice the same skill under different conditions. Alphabetization can be applied to an index, dictionary, telephone directory, encyclopedia, card catalogue, etc. Opportunities to generalize promote learning for transfer.

Organization. Many people assume that "remedial" instruction must be individual instruction. Contrary to this popular notion, studies by Gold and others show that similar results may be obtained from group instruction as from individual instruction. Clinical experiences demonstrate the usefulness of group learning too.

Some other points about organization: Students might be grouped on the basis of instructional levels. Thus, teachers can cope with different abilities in a realistic way. Highly skilled teachers have been able to work with students who are not reading on the same level but who have common weaknesses. Remedial instruction should be systematic. Groups should meet at least twice a week and preferably more. Sessions should run about 45 minutes, certainly no more than an hour. If instruction is offered out-of-class, these periods should not be scheduled at times when students really prefer to be elsewhere, e.g., in the gym or shop.

Interest. An almost universally-held idea about "remedial" reading is that materials of instruction must be geared to the maturity levels and interests of the students. Proponents of this view maintain that older students should not and cannot be taught to read by using materials originally intended for younger children.

I would be the first to recommend the use of materials in which learners are interested. By all means, use them whenever you can. There are large amounts of materials on a variety of topics which will hold the interest of adolescent youth. However, most of these materials are intended for students whose reading ability is 4th grade and higher. There are fewer materials on 2nd and 3rd grade levels and a dearth of them below these levels.

My experiences with hundreds of disabled readers from different socio-economic environments show that it is possible to use profitably materials originally designed for younger children with these older students. Students will accept them if they understand that the story content is not the reason for which they are reading them. The fact that they *can* read them for the first time is more important to them than the nature of the content. I must emphasize that I do not advocate the use of such materials in preference to more desirable ones. But I do recommend them to you when little is available or when you are unable to prepare sufficient quantities of materials in concert with the students.

In Conclusion

The same elements of developmental reading are found in "remedial" reading. Methods do not vary significantly; differences, if any, exist in degree and not form. Students with reading difficulties require and deserve the best we can offer them. We must not settle for less.

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D. SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL LEVEL

1. Identifying the Reading Difficulties of the College-Bound Student

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IN A SOCIETY in which better than fifty per cent of its high school graduates are entering schools of higher learning, the increase in number of college students who have reading difficulties is understandable but hardly excusable. Recent surveys indicate that by 1969-70 the college-age group (18-21) in the United States will reach fourteen million. Eighty per cent of these report as teenagers that they plan to go to college. Nearly half of them will *(1)*.

It seems imperative that secondary-school personnel and college-admission officers find better ways of both identifying and helping the underachieving reader who is planning for or actively seeking admission to a college or university. This paper is primarily concerned with techniques and procedures which might be used in the senior high school to identify the student who possesses the potential for success in a college curriculum but who lacks the reading efficiency necessary to make him a good risk for college admission. Some of these procedures may also be appropriate in freshman-orientation programs of the type planned on most college campuses.

Screening Techniques

Cumulative Records

Examination of the accumulated record of information about a student provides a sensible beginning step in identification of the underachieving reader. Particularly, the history of his academic progress reflected in the scores obtained on standardized tests of reading achievement will usually provide valuable information. Indicators of the student who may be in difficulty are seen primarily in the record which suggests an erratic performance over the years. The normally progressing learner will usually be consistent in his scores on the various sub-tests which typically are included to measure reading achievement and also relatively consistent in the amount of growth observed in his scores from year to year. By contrast, significant discrepancies between sub-test scores and uneven increments of change in total scores, ranging from no growth or a loss to two or more years of growth in one academic year, are indications of probable errors of measurement and signal the advisability of a closer look at the student.

The comparison of mental-tests results with those on achievement tests has been routinely recommended by reading authorities for a number of years as one means of screening out those students who are in need of more assistance in reading.

Since many group tests of intelligence utilize the reading process in the measurement, poor readers do not always show as great a discrepancy between intellectual ability and reading ability as actually exists. Thus, a great deal of caution must be observed in setting up any arbitrary formula as "one year of difference between mental age and reading age" as a requirement before a student may be considered as a candidate for further study or for corrective-reading programs. The accuracy of the measurement of both intelligence and reading is certainly a crucial question in all instances.

Cumulative school records also often reflect earlier teacher's judgments of the pupil's progress, especially when this progress was at variance with test results and school grades. Occasionally, psychological and other types of special services have been consulted to determine the appropriateness of the child's progress at any given stage in his academic program. The presence of this type of information in the student's record may serve to reinforce the evident need for further study or assistance at the present time.

Standardized Tests

The most common method of identifying underachievement in reading is to administer a group standardized-reading tests at the beginning of the school year.

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Those students who place in the lowest-school or national-norm group are scheduled for special help in reading. Such a procedure is of limited value. (1) The pre-college student, usually of better-than-normal intelligence, can often score high enough in such a battery to escape the cut-off point even though he is a better candidate for special help than many of his less gifted peers. (2) There are many factors, other than ability to achieve in reading at a particular level, which may influence an individual's performance on any given group test of reading achievement. (3) Since such measures are *group* tests and were designed primarily for *group* comparisons, the legitimate use of an individual's score *for the purpose of identifying his current level of reading achievement* is questionable.

However, the examination of discrepancies between sub-test scores and comparison of the total performance with previously recorded scores in the cumulative record will provide some indication of the student's need for help. An informal analysis of the pupil's responses to the individual-test items will often reveal the type of error in association, inference, or word perception which led to the marking of an incorrect response. This type of information is more helpful in planning the student's instructional program than total or sub-test scores *per se*. However, conclusions about instructional needs thus gained must be considered "tentative" and should be verified through either individual testing of a diagnostic nature or through initial classroom activities designed to probe these needs in depth.

Recognizing the positive relationship between reading achievement and intelligence, a standardized-group measure of these two areas might be harnessed as a screening device to aid in spotting the underachieving reader. A scattergram for the group can be plotted with the intelligence score recorded on the ordinate axis and the reading score on the abscissa. Developmental readers will cluster about a straight line of regression from the lower left quadrant to the upper right. Any student who placed significantly to the left of the regression line might be considered as a likely candidate for the corrective reading program. This technique also assumes both accuracy of measurement of each of these two variables and a direct, positive relationship between intelligence and reading achievement which is not consistent with our experience. None-the-less, the technique is helpful for screening purposes and of much greater validity if individual measures of the variables are used in place of group instruments.

The Cooperative-Reading Comprehension Tests

College edition tests *(2)* are routinely being administered to all entering freshmen at Temple University to aid in identifying those students most in need of scheduling in courses in reading improvement. Also, all high school and college-age students who are evaluated by the diagnostic staff of the reading clinic and who have seventh-level or better reading abilities are given an appropriate form of this test and the *Gates Reading Survey (3)*. These tests, used in combination, form a more comprehensive measure of the pupil's performance on such group instruments and afford the diagnostician a more versatile appraisal of vocabulary, speed, and depth of comprehension in reading. A further advantage in using these particular tests is their availability in several forms which facilitate their use as post-instructional measures of any change in performance following a period of instruction.

Teacher Observation

Opportunities to observe a student's actual performance in reading situations are present almost continually in every classroom. Teachers who are alert to the need to approach their teaching responsibilities diagnostically will be able to accumulate much information about their pupils' reading levels and instructional needs within these levels. They will also have formed some opinions about each student's general intellectual level of performance apart from reading situations. Thus, in identifying candidates for special reading programs, the recommendations of the teachers who have worked with these students should be carefully considered. It may well be that the truly observant teacher is in the best position, of all concerned, to screen out those students whose performance in reading is definitely inferior to what they are able to do in other than reading tasks.

Ideally, of course, the better screening procedure would be to use all of the foregoing suggestions in combination—cumulative records, standardized measures of reading and mental ability, and the informal observations of the teaching staff. In combination, these procedures may occasionally result in an over-referral for individual evaluation but will also be more likely to eliminate the overlooking of potential college students who are underachieving readers.

Diagnostic Techniques

Once a tentative identification of a retarded reader has been made, the forces of the classroom teacher and any supplementary testing services should be combined. The goal is the best possible evaluation of the exact nature of the difficulties in reading, the degree of retardation which exists, and the factors which are involved in the disability, either etiologically or in a complementary, contributory relationship to the reading problem. Also, it may be necessary, before adequate information can be accumulated to form the basis for planning corrective measures, to go well beyond the field of the student's handling of language. Physical, social, and psychological factors may be standing in the way of his progress and have to be studied. Here, however, attention will be given specifically to techniques for taking a closer look at his reading performance and that in related language areas. Additional areas of investigation which may be needed in individual cases are more the realm of the clinical sessions at this conference and are omitted here.

Informal Tests (4)

The essence of informal tests of language performance is that they measure the individual's performance with pertinent materials against an absolute standard-A, virtually perfect performance. No attempt is made to compare his performance with that of others. No norms are used. The question to be answered is this: "How well can he do this job?" It is from this approach that the achievement levels and the particular strengths and weaknesses of the college-bound student must be appraised. The evaluation can be made in a group situation or on an individual basis, depending upon his particular case. In a very real sense, the master teacher gives a group informal test with each lesson that he teaches in the classroom. Diagnosis is an integral part of his teaching because he realizes that without it he cannot know *what* and *how* to teach. Only when he feels that he still lacks necessary information about a student's grasp or application of certain skills and abilities does he feel it necessary to rely on individual testing.

Group informal reading inventories provide the opportunity to appraise each individual readiness for handling the material to be read. In preparatory activities, the teacher can determine the adequacy of the language and conceptual background the student brings to the reading. He can also observe each student's ability to set up suitable purposes for reading to guide his own reading and to respond to suggestions which arise from the thinking of others. During the silent reading, the observant teacher can get many clues to help him judge the efficiency and effectivenes with which each pupil handles the material. What signs are there of trouble in understanding the material? How much rereading does the individual do in his attempts to clear up points which at first escaped him? How many puzzled looks are observed in comparison with the number of appropriate responses indicating appreciation of the humor involved or satisfaction at the resolution of a problem? Does the student plod through the material or move along in a relatively relaxed, smooth fashion? Does he make use of typographical and pictorial aids or supplements to the basic text? When ideas are discussed after the silent reading, there are again many opportunities to appraise each student's perfomance. Did he satisfy the purpose he set up for reading the material? Did he pick up additional ideas to enlarge and deepen the picture with which he went into the reading? In the discussion does he present relevant evidence from the text to support the conclusion he has reached? As ideas are discussed, questions raised by students and teacher and pertinent portions of the material are reread for a variety of purposes. The alert teacher has countless opportunities to obtain direct evidence of the adequacy or inadequacy of each student's word recognition, knowledge of word meaning, and ability to use all the necessary thinking skills.

Individual reading inventories, when it is necessary to use them, provide the same basic opportunities for evaluation. Of course, there is no chance to see the student interact with others, but the tester himself can, through direct questioning and discussion, evolve some of the same responses. One additional opportunity presents itself in the individual-inventory situation. Because others are not involved, it is possible to have the individual do some oral reading at sight, thus pushing him to the point that otherwise-masked difficulties will become obvious. Varied levels of material can also be handled more readily in a single individual inventory than in a single group inventory. One objective of both, however, is to determine ultimately, through the use of reading materials of varying levels, the difficulty level of the material the student can handle independently and of that in which he can most profitably be instructed. The second aim is to get the clearest possible picture of the strong points in his reading performance and the weaknesses he has to overcome.

Group or individual listening inventories provide the opportunity to evaluate the student's performance when he himself does not have to carry the burden of the actual reading. The relationship between his reading and his listening performance is a significant one. If he has no special problems in either reading or listening, he should do equally well in both kinds of situations. If he has a reading problem, the level at which he can function adequately in a listening situation should be considered as an index of his potential reading achievement at that time. If the reading problem is removed, he should be able to handle by himself (read) any materials which he can apprehend through listening.

Effective use of informal tests to identify the reading needs of college-bound students demands a well-qualified and well-prepared examiner. Whether the classroom teacher is evaluating in a group situation or an individual appraisal is being made by the teacher or a diagnostic clinician, the evaluation can be only as good as the evaluator. A poor observer cannot be a good informal diagnostician nor can an individual who does not, himself, do a top-notch job of handling the reading of the testing material. High standards of performance must be used and the evaluator must be sufficiently prepared to spontaneously "push" for whatever information is needed to provide a sound basis for judgment of the student's performance.

Informal tests are not confined in their use to evaluation of reading and listening. Because an individual's reading difficulties cannot be thought of in isolation from his total language and thinking performance, areas such as spelling, written and oral expression of ideas, word usage, enunciation, thinking in concrete or in oral-language situations, etc., must all be considered in the total picture of his reading difficulties. The whole life-functioning of the individual, therefore, becomes the setting for informal evaluation. Each piece of written work, spontaneous or required, has something to say about how its author thinks, organizes, spells, punctuates to clarify his meaning, uses words, etc. Each utterance, in the classroom or on the way home, is a resource for evaluation. For the alert teacher, there is more meaningful information available through these informal inventories of strengths and weaknesses than can usually be gotten through a formal, standardized test of word knowledge, or spelling ability, or critical thinking skills.

Standardized Diagnostic Tests

In contrast to the informal approach to the identification of the reading needs of the college-bound student just described, a more formal, standardized approach may be used. There are both group and individual diagnostic tests of this type available, although the former are subject to the limitations of group instruments discussed earlier. The latter group are of a more clinical nature and may be used in place of or in addition to the individual informal appraisal. Depending upon the instrument selected, they measure singly or in combination word recognition, oral reading, silent reading, listening abilities, spelling, and a variety of the sub-elements of the student's word-perceptual abilities. Those which are most applicable for use in the secondary school program are

Diagnostic Reading Scales. California Test Bureau
Gray Oral Reading Test. Test Division, The Bobbs-Merrill Company
Sec. IV, Word Attack, Part 1, Oral of the *Diagnostic Reading Tests, Upper Level.* The Committee on Diagnostic Reading Tests, Inc.
Gilmore Oral Reading Test. Harcourt, Brace & World, Inc.
Gates-McKillop Reading Diagnostic Tests. Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University
Durrell Analysis of Reading Difficulties. Harcourt, Brace & World, Inc.
Standard Reading Inventory. R. A. McCracken, Western Washington State College
Gates-Russell Spelling Diagnostic Tests. Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University.

Although these tests are helpful, but not always accurate, in establishing basic instructional levels for students and sometimes add some insight regarding their word perceptual needs, *none* of them provide the depth and breadth of understanding about comprehension and thinking abilities which are necessary for careful instructional planning. Thus, they are valuable only when used as part of the evaluation procedure and not as a substitute for the careful probing in depth described in the informal testing procedure.

Summary

The ability to communicate effectively with one's fellowman appears to be one of the most significant group of skills to be gained through the process of education. From an academic point of view, perhaps the most important of these is the ability to read. Secondary schools must find more effective ways of identifying, evaluating, and helping the college-bound student who may be delayed in his acquisition of this ability.

The problems associated with identification of the underachieving student and evaluation of his more specific reading needs have been discussed. It has been suggested that there are no readily available instruments today which will perform this task for us. Teaching is a process of interaction between teacher and pupil that results in each finding out more precisely about the factors involved in the learning process which confronts the student. Each should find, as a result, greater purpose for the activities in which he must participate in order for the student to embark upon his college career with any likelihood of success.

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1. *Phi Delta Kappan,* XLVII, No. 8, April 1966.
2. Cooperative Test Division, Educational Testing Service, Princeton, New Jersey.
3. Bureau of Publications, Teacher's College, Columbia University.
4. Informal Reading Inventories. Newark, Delaware: International Reading Association, 1965.

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2. Corrective and Remedial Reading Instruction in the Secondary School

DONNA M. MILLS

Of the many problems that plague all teachers at the secondary level, the one concerning the student who reads below grade level causes the most worry and embarrassment for the student, the teacher, and the school. This is true whether the student is a nonreader, a retarded reader, a reluctant reader, a bright underachiever, or a culturally and socially deprived reader.

The recognition of this problem has caused many school systems to institute correctional and remedial programs. Such programs must include more than the teaching of the basic skills. There must be understanding and appreciation for the person, for his abilities, and disabilities. Rapport in corrective and remedial reading is of primary importance with the student and with his parents.

If parents and other interested lay persons are to have an understanding and appreciation of special reading programs, we in the field of reading must communicate to them that reading success depends not only on the skills of the teachers but also on the ability and on the attitude of the student. Not only must the teacher give, but the student must be able and willing to take and to utilize the help given.

Programs

Remedial reading programs throughout the country are as different as the colors in Joseph's coat. This is probably as it should be, for no two situations are alike. Nor do they remain the same year after year even in a given school.

Some schools expect the classroom teachers to meet the varying needs of students by semihomogeneous grouping. At best this is most difficult. There are several reasons:

1. The English curriculum includes more than reading.
2. The courses of study allow no time for remedial work.
3. The teaching of literature is more appealing to teachers.
4. The college entrance problems are paramount at the eleventh and twelfth grades.
5. The students are reluctant to change their study habits. We, as well as administrators, must recognize these facts.

A second type of program which is used in some schools is one in which provision is made for some special reading instruction in small groups. This provides the opportunity for the basic skills to be retaught and at the same time to follow through with the refinement of those skills as needed by the maturing student. With this type of program it is possible and necessary to teach reading in depth.

Currently, in some schools, team teaching is serving to help the students who need additional instruction in the basic reading skills as well as reading in the content areas. This, of course, requires a reading specialist with good background in the contents areas.

A fourth type of program involves helping the teachers who in turn help the students. This is in-service training. An ideal arrangement would be for the reading specialist to conduct classes for all teachers preceding the opening of school on paid time. The reading specialist is then available during the school year for testing, diagnosing, and consultations. In addition she would teach remedial classes.

And lastly, the Reading Laboratory has become the fast-growing pattern. This program provides for all students of a given year or years to have special reading instruction for a six weeks' period. A 12-week period seems more feasible because gains cannot be clinched in six weeks. Inasmuch as all persons can and should improve, this program helps all students. The material used must be at many levels in order to provide for needs of all students. If programed materials are used, there must be several tracts in order to foster growth in all students, and the full, prescribed program must be used so that all skills are taught.

Help for All Teachers

In order to alleviate the plague, poor reading, the Gary Schools in January, 1956 started, at the elementary level, some special classes for students of average and above-average ability who were retarded and/or reluctant readers. It was a small start with but three teachers on a half-day basis, but like the yeast for bread it has grown so that now every elementary and secondary school has small classes for reading improvement. The secondary program started in September, 1959. One secondary school has a partially equipped laboratory and another is fully equipped.

Recognizing the need for some specific helps for all teachers, the special reading teachers throughout the city had some released time in order to prepare guides and activities. One of these gives general basic reading skills, specific skills, related skills, and multitudes of developmental activities for each skill.

Two years ago material was prepared on vocabulary. Embodied in this is a section on prefixes, suffixes, and Greek and Latin roots. Most of the words were found in the secondary textbooks of all subject areas.

To help classroom teachers, the English Department heads of all secondary schools, working under the direction of the English and Reading consultants, have within the last year prepared a guide for the teaching of basic reading skills in the regular classroom. In this, objectives, content, learning experiences and aids for instruction are given. A section is also devoted to the "how to." This is all good! But, good as it is, the services of specially trained reading teachers are also required to meet the needs of the students because of the wide range of reading achievement and the influx of students from deprived areas.

Help for All Students

In any successful program the screening and diagnosing of students is important. Our referrals are initiated by classroom teachers, counselors, school social workers, administrators, parents, and the students themselves. This is a healthy situation.

Since each human being learns in accordance with his ability and his own unique cultural context, that is, his individual psychological, sociological, and economic situation, it is important to assess the home and school environment at the same time that the intellectual, the physical, the emotional, and the classroom achievements are assessed. Some of this must be subjective. Standardized tests such as the following prove helpful: Nelson-Denny Reading Test,[1] Diagnostic Reading Test,[2] and Iowa Silent Reading Test.[3]

These are not difficult to administer or interpret. Each gives pertinent information on which to base needed instruction. Further information is gained from informal hearing capacity, silent, and oral reading tests.

As well as assessing the reading achievement and the various needs, the intelligence factor must be known. At the elementary level, the Pintner Non-Language Intelligence Test[4] is administered by the special reading teacher, while at the secondary level a study of all intelligence tests given routinely is made. The school psychologist, the school nurse, and the physician become a part of the team for a study of emotional and health problems when needed.

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[1] M. J. Nelson, E. C. Denny and James I. Brown, *Nelson-Denny Reading Tests, Vocabulary-Comprehension-Rate*. Boston: Houghton-Mifflin, 1929-60.

[2] Diagnostic Reading Tests—Survey Section, Committee on Diagnostic Reading Tests. Chicago: Science Research Associates, 1952-61.

[3] H. A. Greene, A. N. Jorgensen and V. H. Kelly, *Iowa Silent Reading Tests—New Edition*. Chicago: World Book Co., 1927-39.

[4] Rudolph Pintner, *Pintner Non-Language General Ability Test, Intermediate Test*. Chicago: World Book Co., 1945.

Certainly one criterion for selection into a special class of this type is "Does the student have a desire to improve his reading?" Rarely do I see a student who says, "No," but when I do, he is deferred for assistance until such time as *he* is ready.

After the selection of students has been made, groups of four to ten are formed. Ideally these should be students with like problems, but this is not always possible. These students relinquish their study hall period two days a week.

According to each student's needs, various materials are used. Although teacher-made materials serve the individual pattern of need most adequately, preparation time prohibits this. Some commercial materials which have been tried and tested are:

1. *Tactics*[5] for basic vocabulary building at the word attack and meaning levels,
2. *The SRA Reading Laboratories*[6] for vocabulary, comprehension, comprehension and rate, listening, and listening-notetaking,
3. *Be A Better Reader*[7] for comprehension, vocabulary, and the study skills in the content areas at various reading levels,
4. *Readers Digest,*[8] Educational Edition and Skill Builders, for comprehension, vocabulary, and rate,
5. *How to Become a Better Reader*[9] for comprehension, vocabulary, and rate,
6. *SRA Better Reading,* Books 1, 2, 3,[10] for comprehension, vocabulary, and rate,
7. Trade Books and Paperbacks for comprehension and rate.

Further improvement in rate is accomplished through the use of the Shadowscope.[11]

Part of the work of the correctionist needs to concern concentration. Students may be lacking in this skill for many reasons, such as,

1. Anxiety and tensions from personal problems
2. Unconcerned parents
3. Unconscious drives
    a. Unwillingness to be or do what some one else wants him to do
    b. Retaliation for parental pressures
4. Loss of feeling of competence in any area because of inability to read
5. Effect of television
    a. The picture aids comprehension
    b. Inertia listening, that is, hearing the sound without hearing the content

One way to improve concentration as well as help to improve reading is through conscientious work in listening such as given in the SRA or EDL matetrials.[12] Listening is needed for learning also for testing because at the secondary level, good or bad, many teachers give oral quizzes. Here listening is of paramount importance.

The reading and understanding of poetry cannot be neglected if there are well-rounded readers. Since poetry is musical and intended to be heard, one method of instigating appreciation and reading of poetry is to read the selection to the students. Follow this by having the students make a quick sketch or illustration of the poem. A discussion of the sketches and points which could not be illustrated should be followed with a rereading by the teacher, then by the students.

Specific Projects

During the past year we have had two projects involving team teaching. The first was in an English class of slow-learning students having IQ's of 59 to 100 and coming from culturally and socially deprived homes, some, bilingual.

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[5] *Tactics in Reading* I. Chicago: Scott, Foresman, 1961.

[6] *SRA Reading Laboratory.* Chicago: Science Research Associates.

[7] Nila Banton Smith, *Be a Better Reader.* Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice Hall, 1958-61.

[8] *Readers Digest,* Educational Edition. Pleasantville, N. Y.: The Readers Digest Association, Inc.

[9] Paul Witty, *How to Become a Better Reader.* Chicago: Science Research Associates, 1953.

[10] Elizabeth A. Simpson, *SRA Better Reading,* Books 1, 2, and 3. Chicago: Science Research Associates, Inc., 1962.

[11] Shadowscope, Polytechnics, Chicago.

[12] *EDL Listen and Read Tape Series,* Huntington, N. Y.: Educational Developmental Laboratories.

Many have had a history of severe absenteeism. For 14 weeks, four days a week, we worked on the basic reading skills. At the beginning of our enterprise the reading levels of the 33 seventh grade students were from 1.6 to 5.1 years below grade level. At the end of the 14 weeks three students, two of whom were bilingual, were placed in faster moving classes. As a result of our referral and through testing by the school psychologist, seven students were placed in special education classes. One of the seven had made no progress, the others from three to six months. The remaining 23 students gained from eight months to as much as two years.

The current project on a team basis involves a social studies class with practically the same group of students. We are concerned not only with gaining information, but with attitudes, reading and the social studies skills. These students were lacking in critical thinking skills as well as in active purposeful reading-study approach.

At the present time there are as yet no standardized test scores; but the interest, the attitudes, the general class participation and the teacher-made test results show improvement. We know that, though we cannot give the capacity to learn or to read, we can help develop the native capacity with which a student is blessed.

An earlier and satisfying experience involved a science class. Except to do the initial and final testing, the writer was not in the classroom. Rather a period a day was spent by the science teacher and the writer in planning. The purposes were to improve instruction in science reading, to improve study skills, and to improve the giving and taking of several types of tests. Together we planned the following learning activities:

1. Phonics and their use in science reading
2. Vocabulary, spelling and meaning with work on meaning of prefixes, suffixes, and Greek and Latin roots
3. Reading skills in science
4. Preparation of tests

Specific instruction was given in the reading of various patterns of science writing, that is, problem solving, classification, and pictorial material.

This project of 12 weeks' duration was in fact some action research using an experimental group and a control group. While the standardized test results were not conclusive, there were other factors which led to the conclusion that the project was worthwhile. Interest was increased, classwork had more sparkle, spelling was improved, scientific knowledge was enlarged as evidenced by results of the teacher-made tests, and reading skills were improved.

The classroom teacher was enthusiastic. He found it difficult to refrain from using the new techniques with the control class. This was probably one reason for the inconclusive test results. With this type of endeavor not only are the individual students helped at the time, but the teacher is better prepared to help successive groups.

Another project concerned reading of students of average ability in the tenth grade. Two days a week have been set aside for basic instruction using *Design for Good Reading*.[13] This, coupled with instruction for reading in depth through the literature phase of the English curriculum is producing more interested and better readers.

Conclusion

In an effective program for corrective and remedial reading the following are important:

1. Provision for several plans of work
2. A well-trained reading specialist, not only in the basic skills but in subject matter areas
3. Thorough testing
4. Many types of materials
5. Interested, understanding teachers in the classroom and the reading room
6. An informed faculty, student body, and parents
7. Freedom to work experimentally

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[13] Melba Schumacher, George B. Schick and Bernard Schmidt, *Design for Good Reading*, Levels I and II. Chicago: Harcourt, Brace, and World, Inc., 1962.

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D. SENIOR HIGH LEVEL

1. Remedial Reading Techniques a High School Teacher Can Use

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MUCH has been written and recommended relative to the techniques which a classroom teacher may apply in order to determine reading level of students within individual classes, and as much has been written about the necessity of suiting reading material to the reading level of individual students. The classroom teacher may successfully determine the reading status of individuals in his classes through screening devices such as the Gates Reading Survey, and he may do all in his power to encourage purchase of materials of different reading levels for use within individual classes. The conscientious teacher will, regardless of his subject matter, take pains to help students develop vocabulary, to give students practice in differentiating between relevant and irrelevant detail, to pull out main ideas, to make references and the like in individual reading assignments. However, there are a number of ways in which the classroom teacher can help students to develop study skills which will enable them to conquer course materials. The following summarizes some of these ways.

Basic Concepts

Since success in the several disciplines is based on the ability to conquer the materials therein, and since growth in the ability to apply study skills is a continuing process, provision must be made to supply a planned, sequential development of study skills.

If a student is to acquire specific, efficient study skills and if he is to continue to refine these skills as he moves to more and more complex materials through high school and into college, it becomes essential that the classroom teacher take responsibility for helping him in this development.

In addition, it is essential that students be given many opportunities to practice the skills necessary to their success. A student must not only be shown how he should go about tackling a chapter in a biology textbook, he must be given many opportunities to practice doing it.

General Techniques the High School Teacher Can Use

While it is true that each discipline requires the ability to apply discrete study skills applicable only to itself, it is also true that each classroom teacher has a unique opportunity to reinforce in his students general study techniques applicable to all areas of study. One of the most vital techniques is developing the ability to concentrate. It is an axiom in the psychology of learning that one must have a definite purpose for doing anything successfully. One of the simplest ways for a teacher to help students develop purpose is to give them purpose of a very concrete nature. The vague, generalized purpose of doing an assignment because it is necessary in order to pass the course never developed purpose in any student; better to state modest, but concrete, purposes such as reading to answer specific questions, reading to find the missing link in a developing argument, and the like.

If a teacher analyzes for his students a typical assignment before making it, if he shows the student why the assignment is given and shows the student the best way to do it, he can go one step further and give him a concept of how long this particular assignment should take. Developing in a student a consciousness about reasonable time allowances for individual assignments helps a student to concentrate on what he is doing.

If a textbook is used, teachers should take the time to explain the logic of its make-up, the aids the author has incorporated into it, such as the index, the table of contents and so on. Always it is helpful to students to insist that they understand the use of headings, sub-headings, pictures, diagrams, charts. Unbelievable as it may seem, many students have the conception that these mechanical aids to understanding are the very things they can afford to ignore in the text.

Subject area teachers can help the student immeasurably if they give him the opportunity to practice outlining and summarizing textbooks and source material data. By requiring outlines and summaries of reading assignments as a regular practice the student is almost forced to develop the ability to synthesize materials which can remain vague and disjointed otherwise. One of the biggest problems students have is their inability to see relationships of ideas, sometimes even within the confines of one textbook chapter. The result of purposeless reading is an accumulation of isolated facts meaningless to the student. Summarizing and/or outlining are forms of discipline necessary to develop a continuity of ideas about a subject. To give further practice in helping students develop good organizing skills, teachers can require students to outline lectures and turn them in for teacher appraisal. In line with this, teachers can and should give practice in correlating lecture notes with reading assignments. Students do not suddenly become adept at such correlation. At the best they develop this ability after literally years of hit and miss attempts. At the worst, of course, they simply do not bother to attempt it. Therefore, students need practice under supervision in correlating materials from lectures, from textbooks, from source materials, and the classroom teacher is the only person in a position to give students, on a regular basis, this particular kind of skill-building practice. An area in which classroom teachers can have a most helpful influence on students is in the matter of retention. It is true that factors such as experiential background, the ability to perceive correlations and threads of unity in materials and the ability to take good notes are vital in a student's capacity to retain and use materials. It is also true that students need to be told *why* assignments are given, how they fit into the course as a whole and the reason for the necessity of trying hard to retain materials—a simple idea, and yet how many students, if asked, could show they understand the rationale behind most things they are asked to do in a classroom or homework assignment.

Special Techniques in the Content Areas

In the subject areas, there are applicable skills which the subject area teacher alone is best equipped to teach.

Science. It goes without saying that it is the responsibility of the science teacher to teach the specialized vocabulary in his field. What perhaps should be said is that the science teacher may make the mastering of vocabulary a reasonable task for the student by taking time to explain the reasons for devolping the required technical vocabulary. He can take time to explain the *nature* of scientific writing: its compactness and its use of symbolic language, formulas, graphs, and diagrams. He can take the time to help students identify the different patterns of writing one encounters in scientific materials: the classification pattern, the problem-solving pattern, the detailed statement of facts pattern, the explanation of a process pattern. He can give students practice in applying specific reading skills depending upon the pattern of writing students are encountering.

Mathematics. As in most other areas, helping a student to understand the causes of failure helps him to overcome the difficulties within a specialized area. Teachers can help students by taking the time to explain the reasons for the specific types of symbols used in mathematics and the vocabulary of quantitative expression; for the necessity of learning to "read" illustrations; for the necessity of developing visualization techniques. At the same time he can help the student, through practice, to realize that failure to develop facility in comprehending symbols, quantitative expressions, and illustrations means failure to master this complex subject area.

Social science. In the area of social science perhaps one of the most helpful things a teacher can do for the student is to point out to him, using the current textbook, different patterns of writing social science textbook writers habitually use to deal with their particular kind of data, and what the student can expect from each pattern. Teachers can, using the textbook, give students almost daily practice in applying the best study techniques to each pattern of writing.

Literature. While it is unquestionably true that students are required to read literature of various types, and the teacher of literature understands that his primary task is to help students interpret literary writings, it is also true that the function of literature courses is to enhance cultural experiences of students, to enable them to become independent in making judgments about their reading and to arrive at a state in which they are able to develop standards of taste. This latter objective is perhaps one of the most elusive objectives set down on paper. Because of its elusiveness, it is often the line of least resistance to spoon-feed students acceptable interpretations of various literary works, with no real attempt to help students become independent. In my experience one of the most enlightening approaches to a beginning independence is to help students understand the nature and scope of the various genres. It is one thing (and possibly a dull one) to assign students a group of short stories to read. It may well be enlightening to the student to be shown the *nature* of, for example, the short story —its possibilities, its limitations, its very raison *d 'etre*. The same is true of other genres, the emphasis being on the *reason* authors choose varying forms.

In summary, it is reasonable to assume that the classroom teacher is the most logical person to help students to read in and study his subject. The classroom teacher, through daily contact with students, can most efficiently offer them the opportunity to develop and to use, on a daily basis, reading and study skills applicable to the subject fields. And as with any skill, reading and study skills must be consciously and continually practiced in order to become effective aids to the student.

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C. SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL

1. Remedial Instruction in Comprehension

HELEN K. SMITH

COMPREHENSION is not a simple act in which a student simply grasps what he reads. Thorndike[1] and others have shown that reading a printed paragraph involves a very complex mental operation which includes selection, rejection, organization, and evaluation of the materials read in harmony with the reader's purpose. The foregoing activities are far different from those involved in reading to understand stated details.

The first important step in remediation of comprehension is the identification, through formal or informal testing, of the difficulties of the students. A teacher can then direct the instruction toward specific problems instead of teaching everything related to comprehension, thus saving instructional time. For example, testing may reveal that some students understand the meanings of sentences but not paragraphs, details but not inferences, social studies but not science, biography but not poetry.

In helping students improve in comprehension, the teacher should follow seven guiding principles. First, the literal skills should be taught before the non-literal. Students must understand the stated ideas before they can understand broader meanings or subtle implications. Instruction is incomplete, however, if students are not taught when to infer meanings and when to accept the literal meaning.

Second, although research is not in agreement concerning the components of comprehension and has not determined a sequential order for teaching them, the need to provide practice in reading for varied purposes is evident in practical teaching situations. Through subjective analysis it appears that reading for details and reading for main ideas are basic to reading for other purposes: reading to understand sequential order; to follow directions; to make or to understand comparisons, generalizations, conclusions; to relate causes and effects to different situations; to anticipate outcomes; to be aware of mood or tone, and to distinguish between fact and opinion. The aforementioned purposes can be either literal or non-literal. Each purpose should be introduced and taught separately but later combined with others. Throughout the instructional period no one purpose should be stressed to the exclusion of others. For example, emphasis too often has been placed upon the reproduction of details instead of relating them to a larger context.

The materials, in the third place, should be interesting and challenging to the student and should be varied in length, style, subject matter, and type. Instruction should begin with short and easy materials and progress to longer and more difficult ones.

Fourth, students should have a purpose for reading and should be taught how to read for each purpose. Through careful assignments and suggestions from the teacher, they should know what they are to get from the selection, should see the importance of the skill being developed, and should use the degree of comprehension necessary for their purpose. They should also be taught how to set their own purposes.

Fifth, questions asked of students should be appropriate for their purpose. For example, if they have been asked to read for the general impression of a selection, they should not be held responsible for detailed information. The questions should not be just the short-answer type; some should permit the students to express their own ideas in their own ways.

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[1] Edward L. Thorndike. "Reading as Reasoning: A Study of Mistakes in Paragraph Reading," *The Journal of Educational Psychology*, VIII (June, 1917), pp. 323-329.

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D. SENIOR HIGH LEVEL

1. Improving the Comprehension of the Emotionally Disturbed

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NUMEROUS factors found in juxtaposition to reading disability have been investigated for their causal relationship. While the greater amount of research in this area has been carried on at the elementary school level, there are pertinent studies at the high school and college levels.

Results of most of these research studies have been conflicting and disappointing. Possible causes for disagreements in the findings may be attributed to: (1) inadequate definition of achieving and disabled readers; (2) considerable differences in the standards used for classifying readability; (3) no comparison of disabled readers with control groups of able readers; (4) failure to take into account the effect of school "press" as well as the Placebo[1] and Hawthorne efforts.

Traxler has pointed out the difficulty of measuring readability, showing the variance among tests in their measurement of various components of the reading process. Kingston[2] is in accord with these findings in his statement: "It is suggested that the concept of reading comprehension should be subject to careful re-examination and review. We cannot determine at present whether the positive correlations obtained between measures of comprehension and personality and intelligence are due to genuine relationships or impurities of measurement in each area. It is possible that a more behavioristic or descriptive definition of reading comprehension may be of assistance."

Disagreements and conflicts not-withstanding, recent studies indicate that no single cause or factor can be held solely responsible for reading difficulties. The principle of multiple causation applies here as in other areas of human behavior. Not only is a constellation of mutually interacting factors practically always found in cases of reading disability, but these complexes vary in their component factors from case to case.

Let us take a look at some of the pertinent research findings concerned with this constellation of related factors:

Physical Factors

Dechant[3] concluded that physical factors are contributing factors to reading disability rather than causal. Spache[4] reports that most of the evaluations of various physical factors as causes of poor reading have been essentially negative.

Intellectual Factors

McDonald[5] administered the WAIS to 50 disabled readers of high school age and 50 disabled readers at college level. These disabled readers did better in tasks involving social comprehension (when presented orally), in attention to details, and in simple manipulative tasks than they did in tests reflecting attention, concentration, memory, and school-like tasks. These results were similar to those reported by Spache[6] on elementary school children.

Associative Learning

A summary of the research in this area by Johnson[7] shows that certain patterns of deficiency in associative learning tend to characterize severely disabled readers. Ability in associative learning may be disturbed by visual defects, hearing defects, memory weaknesses or emotional disturbances (which may underlie all the foregoing). It should be emphasized that these patterns are *not* related to reading disability in a one-to-one manner.

Emotional Factors

Increasing attention has been given to the relationship between reading and emotional status. Many research reports have pointed out that reading disabilities are accompanied by more or less severe personality difficulties. However, some researchers did not find reading to be significantly related to personal adjustment of students. Holmes[8] concluded that, for his sample of college students, the data did not support the hypothesis that a strong relationship exists between reading disabilities in either speed or power of reading and any particular syndrome of personality traits.

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[1] Arthur S. McDonald. "The Placebo Response and Reading Research." *Twelfth Yearbook of the National Reading Conference,* Ralph C. Staiger and Culbreth Y. Melton (Eds.), The National Reading Conference, Inc., Milwaukee, Wisconsin, 1963, pp. 220-229.

[2] Albert J. Kingston. "The Measurement of Reading Comprehension." *Ninth Yearbook of the National Reading Conference,* Oscar S. Causey and Emory P. Bliesmer (Eds.), Texas Christian University Press, Fort Worth, Texas, 1960, pp. 88-93.

[3] Emerald Dechant. "Some Unanswered Questions in the Psychology of Reading." *Eighth Yearbook of the National Reading Conference,* Oscar S. Causey and William Eller (Eds.), Fort Worth: Texas Christian University Press, 1959, pp. 99-112.

[4] George D. Spache. "Factors which Produce Defective Reading." *Corrective Reading in the Classroom and Clinic,* Suppl. Educ. Monog. No. 79, 1953, pp. 49-57.

[5] Arthur S. McDonald. "What Current Research Says about Poor Readers in High School and College." *Jl. Dev. Read.,* Vol. IV, No. 3, Spring 1961, pp. 184-196.

[6] George D. Spache. "Personality Patterns of Retarded Readers." *J. Educ. Res.,* 50, 1957, pp. 461-469.

[7] D. M. Johnson and F. Reynolds. "A factor Analysis of Verbal Abilities." *Psych. Res.,* 1941, pp. 183-195.

[8] Jack A. Holmes. "Factors Underlying Major Reading Disabilities at the College Level." *Genet. Psych. Monog.,* 49, 1954, pp. 3-95.

Robinson's study[9] reported that disabled readers at the college level often manifest definite maladjustments. This study further emphasized that every person who deals with poor readers must be alert to the presence of complicating emotional problems which have repeatedly been shown to interfere with learning. Woolf[10] noted the presence of fear and the evidence of many symptoms associated with frustration, stereotypy, insecurity, undifferentiated self-concepts. In the same research, Woolf further reported that the MMPI responses for disabled readers at the college level were significantly different than those for achieving readers. He found lack of self-understanding and delay in identification with adults of the same sex as well as indications of low morale, lack of self-confidence, extreme anxiety, and rigidity for the disabled readers.

McDonald *et al.*[11] found marked discrepancies among the ideal-self concept, the self-concept, and the concept of others in a group of poor readers at the college level. These students manifested strong needs for abasement and deference as determined by TAT and diagnostic interviews. These findings are supported in a later study by Joseph. [12]

Johnson's[13] conclusions from a study of the research on the relationship of emotions to reading disability seem to indicate:

1. There is no single personality trait or combination of traits invariably associated with either success or failure in reading. Variability of personality structure will be great within groups of both achieving and disabled readers.
2. Personal maladjustment which lead to inability to attend and concentrate will have a negative effect on the development of reading ability.
3. The presence of many of the serious symptoms of personal maladjustment is more frequently associated with failure in reading than with success in reading.
4. Emotional problems and reading disability, when they occur together, are apt to aggravate each other. Both must be considered in the treatment of the whole problem.
5. The influence of home conditions is strong in determining both personal adjustment and achievement in reading.

Conclusion

The research findings indicate that reading disability is the result of a constellation of inhibiting factors varying with different institutional environments. Most of the factors considered in this paper may act at different times, either as predisposing factors or as precipitating factors. Usually, a single factor will become functional in reading disability only in connection with other factors as part of a psycho-psychological matrix.

Because multi-causal factors and psychological functions underlie reading disability in high school and college students, because reading is a function of the whole personality, one aspect of the growth of the person as a whole, the ultimate goal of reading instruction must be the modification of the personal and social adjustment of the student wherever such adjustment impedes reading ability.

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[9] Helen M. Robinson. "Emotional Problems Exhibited by Poor Readers: Manifestations of Emotional Maladjustment." *Clinical Studies in Reading I*, Suppl. Educ. Monog., No. 68. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1949.

[10] Maurice D. Woolf and Jeanne A. Woolf. *Remedial Reading*. New York: McGraw Hill, 1957.

[11] Arthur S. McDonald, *et. al*. "Reading Deficiencies and Personality Factors: a Comprehensive Treatment." *Eighth Yearbook, National Reading Conference*. Fort Worth: Texas Christian University Press, 1956, pp. 14-22.

[12] Michael P. Joseph and Arthur S. McDonald. "Psychological Needs and Reading Achievement," *Thirteenth Yearbook of the National Reading Conference,* Eric L. Thurston and Lawrence E. Hafner (Eds.), The National Reading Conference, Inc., Milwaukee, Wisconsin, 1964, pp. 150-157.

[13] D. M. Johnson and F. Reynolds, *op. cit.*

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C. SECONDARY LEVEL

1. High School Reading for the Severely Retarded Reader

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"THAT THERE IS the best book written! And you know what else? It's the first book I ever read from start to stop!"

These were the words of thirteen-year-old Butch. These were amazing words for him to say, for three short semesters before Butch had been identified as a potential dropout. He had reached—age-wise and promotion wise—junior high school with problems bigger than he was. His attendance for the past two years had been very irregular. He had bragged that men didn't need "book-learning"—and then he had become one of the silent ones in the classroom, offering no problem but just an indifferent "I don't know" to any question or just one of those who stoically sit and wait until enough birthdays have passed so that they can legally be released from the confines of the classroom. What else could he do? He couldn't even read!

When he walked into the special English class, he made a bargain with the teacher. "I won't bother you none if you won't try to make me read."

What can be done for these young adolescents? They are caught in a school where 80 per cent of the learning is based on reading. They are faced with a world where job interviews are often dependent upon a high school diploma. They are confronted with technological changes in jobs, requiring three or more retraining periods during a man's productive years. Yet failure with books and with the usual procedures in reading have resulted in complete withdrawal from reading. What can be done for these young people?

Try a New Attack

Only one thing is possible—try a new attack. And that is what Butch's teacher did. In fact, this approach is the big thing we have learned in three years of special classes which have been formed to study this problem.

First, the teacher reads aloud a little each day. It may be a humorous poem, a tear-jerking short feature story from the newspaper, a joke, or riddle—anything interesting enough to capture the pupil's attention, short enough to hold interest, and different enough that the students would respond to it.

Next, she planned work which these pupils could do—and do well. Success was a new and exciting experience for these pupils. So, success was built into these programs. Nothing was finally presented as an assignment to the pupils until enough background had been provided that the pupils could complete the assignment satisfactorily, meaning perhaps that several experiences would be provided in order to build the necessary conceptual informational background which could insure understanding. Frequently this planning included a field trip, a motion picture, some film strips, slides, bulletin board pictures, and newspaper or magazine articles. Always, much work was done on vocabulary, for without an understanding of the concept represented by both the spoken and the written word, the culminating lesson and assignment would result in confusion and frustration for the learner. We learned that these special pupils must be so immersed in the necessary vocabulary and the needed experiences that these become a part of the learner's very being.

Include Reading Skills

But what about reading instruction *per se?* Until the resentment toward books had been overcome, few books were used by the pupils. Reading in other formats was substituted: experience stories, kit-type materials which were brief and interesting, newspapers, directions for their hobbies, film strips on a controlled reader, and paragraphs or exercises on a transparency. Frequently, the tape recorder was used to develop listening skills and to assist the severely retarded, stumbling reader to acquire correct phrasing and help with difficult words.

Memory work, particularly of good poetry, did much toward increasing vocabulary and improving phrasing and intonation. This progress in turn built reading comprehension and led to more fluent oral and written language. Here, the erasure technique for teaching poetry was used, making this activity a most pleasurable one. Again, the tape recorder was used to record the choral reading of selections. Pupils became quite involved as they listened to themselves, discussed their performance, and made suggestions for improvement. Here, records were frequently used to show pupils how a professional interpreted the same selection. It was most gratifying to hear the lively discussion which frequently followed such a comparison!

Finally, the teacher had to be most flexible. When the students came into class complaining that they could not remember their history lesson or could not understand their science book, the teacher put aside her own plans, for the moment. This hour was the right one to teach these pupils how to read and study another book. This day was the time that she could show them that the many days they had spent in "guessing what this new word meant by reading the sentence" was to show them how to gain meaning from context in other subject areas. This day was the one to show pupils how to apply in another context what they knew about main ideas and supporting details. So this day was the day the teacher had long awaited: the day her pupils realized that they were making real and substantial gains in their reading ability and that they really could read some books!

Are these suggestions "unorthodox" according to the established techniques for teaching reading? Perhaps. But no one can build a lasting superstructure without a good foundation. The teacher must first understand that all pupils who have failed to learn to read up to their own expectancy level (mental age −5 will yield the grade-level expectancy) have a learning problem. For many, this deficit will be an experiential-conceptual-information one which must be removed before even the brightest pupil can function up to his innate potential. To overcome this deficiency the teacher must literally saturate the pupils with meaningful experiences and mediate so effectively that permanent, well-understood concepts will evolve. Next, she must use, for all, a multi-sensory approach which will involve the pupils through sight and sound, using as many of the audio-visual aids as are available or as can be devised. She will involve pupils through the tactile and the kinetic senses. This practice will involve much speaking and much writing. Finally, she will involve listening—listening to class discussions, to tape recordings, to records, or to the sound track on a film. She will use listening exercises to develop the pupils' abilities to differentiate between sounds and to reproduce sounds correctly. She will, at last, involve critical listening skills to develop listening-thinking power.

Finally, everything the teacher plans must strengthen the relationship between reality, the spoken word, and the written word. For only as these become integrated within the pupil's mind can true reading occur.

Materials Necessary

What must the school provide? First of all, it must provide a teacher with interest, empathy, and insight; next, audio-visual equipment and materials which will enable the teacher to use many approaches to develop a single, wanted concept; third, an abundance of reading materials: books, magazines, and kits appropriate to the ability and interest-level of the pupils; and finally, a counselor who can assist in testing and in conferring with the pupils.

Mental Health Aspect

How does this program of reading carried on in the English classroom assist the counsellor?

1. Success, built into the program in small, manageable steps, helps to destroy the defeatist attitudes of the pupils. The teacher, using praise and encouragement in a carefully structured environment, must balance adequate challenge with success and recognition. To get pupils who are inured to failure to believe in success is a difficult task.

2. As the defeatism diminishes, a sense of personal worth increases. Since

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a good self-image is necessary to achievement and to general life adjustment, this rise in ego usually results from enjoying small successes. Butch, who had never read a book, first wanted the teacher to bargain with him—he would cause no trouble if she would not ask him to read. Then one day in the library, backed with months of intensive work designed to increase reading ability and faced with a stack of gaily-jacketed books, he wanted to know—"Can I read one of these now, maybe?"

"This is one I have been wanting you to read. It is about a man—independent like you are—who was shipwrecked. You'll really like this book," the teacher said as she handed him a rewritten version of *Robinson Crusoe*. How many months had she waited for this question! Now Butch tells other boys casually, "I read this here book last week. It's real neat. You oughta read it, too." So he is gaining status with his peers as he develops his own self-image through success in reading.

3. Goal-setting which is at once challenging and realistic is almost nonexistent for these pupils. Yet going through life without a goal is like setting out on a journey without a destination. A harsh environment coupled with continuous failure in school-oriented work usually results in the pupils' feeling powerless to exercise any control over their futures. Therefore, they live for today only. The teacher must assist pupils in developing realistic, clear, definite, short-term goals. Then, as these goals are achieved, new ones must be set up. Only in this way can pupils learn that goals achieved are stepping stones to success. Only in this way can their level of aspiration be raised. But this gain can happen only if the pupils are taught in such a way that they *are* learning and achieving, encouraged at points of failure, and praised at points of success. But a conscious effort to widen their horizons must be made.

4. Our society holds tenaciously to certain values that are not likely to have been assimilated by disadvantaged pupils. Without these values, pupils frequently encounter ridicule or rejection. More seriously, they may run into problems with our laws which reflect these values. Respect for personal and property rights of others, respect for law and authority, love of country, and understanding of citizenship responsibilities can be structured in many of the activities for these pupils. Skillfully-led classroom discussions, carefully-planned classroom experiences, and well-selected reading are effective ways for building these values with pupils. Society expects the schools to inculcate these values into today's pupils so that tomorrow's citizens will perpetuate and improve our heritage.

Summary

So, to teach the severely retarded reader in the classroom situation, try a new approach. Get really acquainted with each pupil so that you can know his potential and his needs. Recognize the voids in his educational background and plan for the reteaching of these skills or concepts.

Plan a variety of ways to teach any single item. This method is necessary for many reasons. These pupils have an extremely short span of attention; therefore, several approaches must be available to provide an adequate amount of drill. Also, different pupils learn in different ways. Johnny learns only through the kinesthetic sense; Judy learns only by seeing; Billy learns only by hearing. All people learn by doing, so all must be involved in the way they learn best.

Appropriate materials must be available. The sixteen-year-old pupil who struggles with a fifth-grade reader cannot cope with a tenth-grade world history book. Adaptations must be made of the materials; backgrounds must be developed in pupils. Many high-interest books must be readily available to encourage much independent reading.

Teachers must try a new attack. If the phonic approach to reading fails, they must try the sight-word method. If both have failed, then they must try the kinesthetic. An eclectic approach will be the appropriate one probably, and must be tried along with periodicals, kits, and experience stories. Then, teachers may let pupils return to books when success is assured.

Special, small classes must be provided so that the slow-learner is not dominated and confused by brighter pupils who travel at a fast pace. Also, he must not serve as a drag to hold back and bore his more advanced peers.

Finally, the English program provided for him must be a broad-based language arts course. Although the course must be reading-oriented, it must also involve the pupil in listening and in writing and in speaking. It must build needed background, acceptable attitudes, and needed skills.

We have the money. Many materials are currently available, and more are in the offing. We have the pupils who have great needs. We have the researchers and the experimenters. But the teacher is the key to learning. If we meet the challenge of these high school retarded readers, we will do so because of teachers who have insight, inspiration, and imagination; who have empathy and understanding; who can bring together in a classroom research, pupils, and material, and produce the desired end product: responsible citizens for tomorrow.

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outstanding resource people in the field of reading for in-service purposes; work with colleges and universities for better pre-service preparation of secondary teachers in the understanding of the reading process.

With the need for increased education to compete effectively in our highly technological and complex culture and with the tragic consequences of the high school drop-out and the jobless youth, it would seem that the role of the reading specialist in the junior high school should be greatly expanded and strengthened.

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3. An Experiment in Class Organization for High School Freshmen

OLIVER S. ANDRESEN

MOST educators recognize the importance of guiding students towards increasing independence as they mature. In light of this philosophy the freshmen class at the University of Chicago High School has been reorganized so that each ninth grade student is given the independence not only to choose some of the learning activities in which he will participate but also to reap the advantages or disadvantages of these choices. Specifically such a program is rich with possibilities for the advancement of reading.[1]

The reorganization of the freshmen class activities is called the Freshmen Project. Basically, the organization is as follows: Most of the freshmen at the University High School are required to attend regular academic classes only three days a week. On Tuesdays and Thursdays these students pursue activities of their own choosing. These activities are referred to as "options." All options are related to the four basic areas of study for freshmen—English, social studies, science, and mathematics—and are either formulated by teachers or students. In general, the nature of the options is that of silent, independent study, laboratory work, teacher-led group discussions, student-led "bull" sessions, work in the library, or work with special material resources.

Every Friday afternoon the freshmen in their homerooms receive a list of forty options. Each freshman chooses eight of these options which he will pursue on the following Tuesday and Thursday and indicates his choices on an IBM card. These cards are then processed through an IBM machine which not only prints an attendance list of those students who will attend each option but also analyzes each student's choices as the year progresses so that an overall evaluation of his choice of options is compiled. Teachers and counselors are given these data. A student experiencing academic difficulties can be advised to choose options in keeping with his needs; or if absolutely necessary, his specific choices can be vetoed by his counselor.

A premise of this project is that each content area teacher in the limited number of days per week will cover as much of the required material of his course as that of any high school teacher in the conventional five-day week. This concentration of required instruction does not seem to create hardships for most of the students involved.

The freshmen project opens up many

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[1] Directors of the project are Ernest Poll and Edgar Bernstein of the University of Chicago Laboratory Schools.

avenues for the advancement of reading at this level. A list of specific option titles will support this statement. Example options of a developmental reading nature are: Short Story Seminar, a different story discussed each week; Oral Reading, a means of both entertaining and of imparting information; The Dictionary as a Vocabulary Resource; and A Discussion of *Time* Magazine as a Resource for Information.

Example options of study-type reading are: How to Interpret Graphs and Maps; The Library as a Source for Interesting Studies in Mathematics; and Finding Reference Materials for Special Studies Projects. Some language arts options are: Short Story Writing; Punctuation Review; Word Origins; and Poetry Reading.

Also the services of the University of Chicago Reading Clinics are offered as an option.

Shortly after the initiation of the project some freshmen, at their own request, were returned to the conventional class organization of five academic class days per week. On the other hand, certain highly creative students progressed so rapidly with this independence that they were required to attend only one day of academic classes per week with four days for options. Most freshmen elected to continue with the initial program of two option days a week.

Of these three types of class organization, those students in the four-options-days-per-week program showed the greatest gains on the achievement tests at the end of the school year. Those students following the two-options-days-per-week program showed the next highest gains, and those students following the conventional five class days a week program showed the least gains. The directors of the project do not claim that these data substantiate the success of the project. In fact, conclusions concerning the project are incomplete. Yet, in the opinions of the majority of the freshmen, their teachers, and their parents, the project is a success because it not only allows for an enriched program of required subject matter but also promotes a growing sense of self reliance and mature judgment on the part of the freshmen participating in this type of class organization.

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C. JUNIOR HIGH LEVEL

1. Techniques of Organization

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THREE DIFFERENT programs in reading, and hence three techniques of classroom organization, are summarized in this paper. Also, an innovation in teacher training which directly contributes to junior high school reading is summarized.

The Rolling Reader[1]

Perhaps—just perhaps—some youth do not like to go to school, especially if they have reading problems; but, it has been proved that they do like to go to the *Rolling Reader.*

Twelve school districts with 35,000 children share the services provided by the Board Of Cooperative Educational Services (BOCES) in northern Westchester County, New York. Miss Muriel Garten, Consultant-Clinician in this large area, conceived a plan for a reading clinic on wheels—a Rolling Reader.

Purpose. The purpose of the Rolling Reader is three-fold; it serves as (1) a reading clinic for the severely retarded, (2) a teacher's in-service education laboratory, and (3) a research unit.

A Thumbnail Sketch, The Rolling Reader.[2] The Rolling Reader is 36 feet long, equipped with a generator, air conditioning, a heating system, and a restroom. The Reader can serve as one room or be divided into two classrooms. There are seven audio-equipped carrells which are also used for individual study. Other features include built-in cupboards, files, work tables, overhead book shelves, and storage space.

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[1] *The Rolling Reader* (the mobile program) was organized by, and is now headed by Muriel Garten, a reading specialist for the Board of Cooperative Educational Services, Northern Westchester, Bedford Hills, New York. The writer is indebted to Miss Garten for the provision of material for this report.

[2] Filmstrip: Elementary and Secondary Act, Public Law 89-10; excellent explanation of law. *Rolling Reader* is pictured. Cost, $4.00 *with* check. Investigate availability of funds. NAVA, Spring Street, Fairfax, Virginia.

Equipment includes listening laboratory materials, reading instruments, typewriters, visual aids, a professional library, and a library of teaching instruments and materials designed to improve skills in rate, vocabulary and comprehension, and content areas.

The Staff. The staff includes the Consultant-Clinician; an English teacher, a developmental reading instructor, grades 1-12; the part-time services of a remedial reading teacher and a teacher of study skills in the content areas. The English teacher serves as a substitute for a classroom teacher who then participates in the Reader program.

Organization for Individual Instruction in the Classroom. Each student is required to have a manila folder containing his diary (secretarial notebooks are best) in which he records his plan of operation, responses, and periodic evaluation of progress. All evidence of progress is filed therein (charts and graphs). He is expected to be able to answer the question, "How are *you* doing and what are *your* objectives?" at all times and to prove his answers.

The students operate all instruments, make their own corrections, analyze their errors, and set new goals of achievement for themselves. Result: involvement of students—100 per cent.

Thinking, Reading, and Writing[3]

Another new approach for the purpose of improving a student's thinking, reading, and writing is being developed in Amherst High School.

Organization for Team Teaching. The tenth grade English course involves a team of four teachers and two groups of two hundred students which meet twice a week; the remaining three days, students meet in small-class groups for discussion and recitation periods.

The Program in Action. The large groups meet in the auditorium. A team instructor gives an oral-visual demonstration, in which liberal use is made of both overhead and opaque projection. Outlines are provided for students.

The course includes the following assumptions about reading and writing:

1. All thinking, above the most elementary level, involves language.
2. Quality of thought is definitely related to quality of linguistic control.
3. Some major problems of reading and writing can be dealt with effectively by concentration of teaching effort in the areas of critical and creative thinking.

The instructors have borrowed largely from the techniques of creative thinking which appear in the growing literature on creativity.

The team tries to help students cope with analogical reasoning, particularly in the area of literature. Success in using language seems to depend to a great extent on the ability to recognize the implications of metaphoric language.

The large gray areas in which fact and opinion tend to blend into one another are discussed. Instructors try to help students distinguish two kinds of opinions; those based on accurate information and inferential in nature; and those based on value systems and more appropriately called judgments.

In this program students can learn how to make creative use of what they know by rearrangement, by finding effective new combinations of knowledge, new ways of looking at relatively familiar things, and by bringing a fresh pair of eyes to common situations.

The Articulated Program in Literature[4]

The Articulated Program in Literature is an important area of the total instructional program of The Articulated Program in English now in action in the Newton Public Schools. The name indicates the fact that the literature program is articulated with the required English program, grades 7-12.

Purposes. Enjoyment, appreciation, development of taste and critical judgment are the general objectives of this program. Literary genres (categories) are used as the basis for the content organization.

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[3] *Thinking, Reading and Writing* is the English program for Grade 10 in Amherst Central Schools, Amherst, New York. Mrs. Ruth Morris, Coodinator of Reading K-12, is a member of the planning committee. Richard A. Laughlin, head of the Department of English, is chairman of the committee and has responsibility for the program.

[4] "The Articulated Program of Literature" from *The Articulated Program of English*, is under the supervision of Mary Lanigan, head of the Department of English, and Katherine Torrant, Director of Reading, Newton Public Schools, Newton, Massachusetts. The writer is indebted to Francis P. Hodge, Lecturer and Consultant, Cornell University for information re this program.

Organization. The Newton instructional program is an outstanding example of the "spiral curriculum."[5] The program is a two-year sequence. The grade programs in the high schools are included in the following levels: Level One, grades 7-8; Level Two, grades 9-10; Level Three, grades 11-12. The two-year emphasis allows for a sequence of development in literary skills and appreciation in accordance with grade and grouping policies of the school.

The Articulated Program in Literature. Each teacher receives a comprehensive curriculum bulletin describing in the first phase the nature of the genre, the reader's approach to the genre, and the teacher's preparation for teaching it.

The second phase shows three levels of skills and/or activities to be emphasized by the teacher.

The third phase is a listing of novels for each level. The list has a reserve list which is limited to one grade and a suggested level from which the teacher must choose. The given lists of skills, activities, appreciations, and other related facets to be developed are sequentially arranged from the simple analysis questions to those more abstract.

The Reading Center[6]

There are some persons who sit and wish and there are others who wish *and* work. The educators who have sponsored and brought into being the *Buffalo Reading Center* are indeed listed in the wish-and-work group.

The Building. The 1888 building now occupied by the Buffalo Reading Center was once abandoned and later gutted by fire. In 1957 the building was remodeled to provide classrooms, offices, and special rooms to fit the needs of a modern reading center, including a library with children's books and periodicals, and professional books and materials for teachers.

Purpose. The primary purpose of the Reading Center is to improve the reading program throughout the Buffalo Public School System. This purpose is accomplished through three primary means: (1) the in-service training of teachers; (2) the improvement of the developmental reading program—kindergarten through grade 12; and (3) provision for diagnostic, remedial and corrective services to pupils with special reading difficulties.

Present Staff. The staff includes the following full-time personnel: 1 assistant principal, 4 reading consultants, 1 remedial reading teacher, and 4 trainees. Part-time services include those of 1 psychologist, 1 school doctor, 1 school nurse, and 1 audiometer technician.

Demonstration Classes and Workshops. Pupils from nearby schools come to the Center. Each class is taught for a period of four weeks by one of the consultants. Conferences are held before and after each lesson to explain the aim of the lesson, techniques used, and materials presented. Each reading consultant conducts a workshop after school hours, one session per week for four weeks. Teachers are invited to participate in all Center activities.

Instruction of Trainees. Trainees are given training and participate in each Reading Center activity in relation to the developmental reading program, the corrective and/or remedial program, and the inservice training of teachers. Five hours or more per week are devoted to lectures by the consultants.

The Program in the Junior High. Following a junior high teacher-trainee's year of education in the Center, he is usually assigned to a particular junior high school. There, in brief, he can give demonstrations for a teacher in a classroom, suggest materials, help to determine the causes of reading difficulties and actually establish a high school reading center serving the one building.

The teachers greatly appreciate these services in their classrooms. This appreciation is underscored by the fact that of the 35 trainees in the program since the Reading Center opened, 25 are now reading specialists in the schools of Buffalo, New York.

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[5] Jerome S. Bruner, *The Process of Education*, Cambridge, Harvard University Press, 1960, pp. 13, 33, 52-54.

[6] Buffalo, New York, has a building devoted to *The Reading Center*. The "Center" has a complete program of reading services to the schools, K-12. Miss Kathryn Summers, reading specialist, provided information regarding the program.

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B. JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

1. Stemming the Pressure on the "So Called" Advanced Reader

CAROLYN W. FIELD

THE JUNIOR HIGH years are probably the most difficult and confusing for the American teenager. He is being forced into an adult world for which he is not ready physically, socially, emotionally, or mentally. Just as the primary years are periods of change and growth from babyhood to childhood, so are the years between twelve and fourteen periods of change and growth between childhood and adulthood. Boys and girls have to mature slowly. Each person is an individual and matures at his own rate.

It is a dramatic change for a boy or girl to move from his neighborhood school, where he is in a self-contained classroom with one teacher who knows him as an individual, to a large school with students from various sections of the city where there are many teachers, few of whom will have the time to really know him.

Just at the time when the skills and interests in reading should be at their peak, when the teacher and the librarian can become the catalyst between the child and the wonderful world of books, the child becomes *one of many* shuttling from one class to another. This is the period when personal guidance in reading is vital because books that will help the child to understand himself and others, and will help to sensitize him to human problems and values, may be missed. And if he does not read these books at this time, he will never go back to them.

Children are not born with the instinctive wisdom to select the best. They need guidance, particularly in this day and age with masses of books pouring from the publishing houses.

Why do children miss the books written for this particular age group? It is because the adults, parents, and teachers, are pushing them ahead too fast.

Let us start with the parents. "My child is advanced" is a phrase heard over and over. Parents permit, even encourage, the child to dress and act like an adult, to become a miniature adult. On the one hand the child is coddled and given no responsibility. On the other he is thrown into situations for which he is not prepared, and parents are aghast when he reacts violently.

If the parent is a reader himself, he may know picture books and perhaps the fairy tales, but he will not be familiar with the books written for the older boys and girls. So when his child gets into the junior high grades, he will promote the books that he knows, namely, adult books. Few parents discuss books with their children and have little conception as to how much the child is getting out of books. A parent may push his child to concentrate on school assignments and thus permit him no time for personal reading. Today, it seems as if the majority of children fit into one of two categories: the child who comes from a culturally poor home where reading means nothing to the parents, *or,* the child who comes from a home where the parents feel that high marks and adult books are the criteria for status. Poor child.

And the teacher, where does he come in? He is the one with whom I have the greatest complaint. He is the one who should be able to make the years of change from childhood to adulthood exciting and broadening. He is the one who can introduce the child to books that will help him develop and understand himself and others, make him sensitive to others, and provide him with standards and values for making decisions.

Basically, the problem is three-fold: the teacher does not really know the reading needs of seventh and eighth graders, does not know the materials and services available in the public library, and does not know the books that are suitable and available for this age. Repeatedly, seventh graders are sent to the library for books that are definitely adult. One teacher gave his students a list of 60 titles of which only 18 were in the children's collection. What were some of these books? *Pride and Prejudice, Wuthering Heights, The Good Earth, Rebecca, Giant, Hiroshima, Cyrano de Bergerac, Exodus, The Caine Mutiny, The Robe,* and others. These books are on high school and college reading lists and are in great demand by adults.

These books were written for adults, and the conflicts, relationships, and emotions presented in them are incomprehensible to the 12 or 13-year-old. Where are *Young Fu of the Upper Yangtze, The House of Sixty Fathers, A Diary of a Young Girl, Warrior Scarlet,* and the other books by Rosemary Sutcliff? *The Sacred Jewel* by Nancy Faulkner? The books by Elizabeth Speare or the Betty Cavanna, Mary Stolz, James Summers books that present problems that are pressing for these young people?

These books are on library shelves waiting for the reader, *but* the teacher does not know them. He assigns the books that he knows, the ones that *he* read in high school or college.

Librarians recognize the fact that many children are advanced in certain areas of knowledge, namely the sciences, and are buying adult materials for the children's collections or making provision for the child to use the adult department. Very often the material the child can understand is not in the adult but in the children's collection. Recently, our most annoying assignment was from a social studies teacher who told his eighth grade students that they *must use adult material only*. Obviously this teacher does not know that several excellent books in the areas of law, labor, and war have been published by the children's departments of publishing houses.

One other problem is research. When a second grader comes in and says he has to do "research" on a particular subject, there is only one person who could have told him this, the teacher. When a seventh or eighth grader comes in to do *research* on a subject, again, there is one person who could have used this term with him —the teacher! How can anyone do *research* when he does not even know how to use the card or book catalog or an encyclopedia? School librarians are striving to teach children the techniques and skills for using the library and reference books, but they cannot do it alone. Teachers must help and the first step must be to find out what is available and how it can be used.

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2. Effective Ways of Organizing Classroom Activities

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Importance of Reading Prior to Junior High School

READING INSTRUCTION in the junior high school is directly influenced by the reading instruction that occurs from kindergarten through grade six. Children need good kindergarten programs where reading readiness is so important. Those children who are not ready for reading after kindergarten should have a longer readiness program in first grade. Attitudes toward reading are built at this time, and junior high school may be a little late to change them.

Many materials and approaches are now available to teachers, and these new ideas should be tried out to find the best ways to help children read. Children should have materials and instruction at their reading levels in all grades. Word attack skills must be emphasized as the vocabulary of junior high school books is quite difficult.

Study skills need to be emphasized in the middle grades to help the child in the junior high school content fields. Remedial reading should begin as soon as the child falls behind his expected level. Junior high school teachers need to work with elementary teachers in meetings, in-service training, and reading council meetings. The emphasis should be in working together, improving the reading ability of pupils, and discussing methods and materials rather than ignoring or criticizing each other.

Importance of Reading in the Junior High School

Before the organization of junior high schools, reading was usually one of the regular subjects for all children. With large numbers of pupils in grades seven to nine in one building, it became possible to enrich the curriculum with art, music, industrial arts, science, and other subjects. Because the length of the school day did not increase, something had to give in the program, and it was convenient to assume that children learned to read in the elementary grades. Reading was dropped as a subject and correlated with the rest of the language arts program.

Direct instruction through reading classes is absolutely necessary in the junior high school. Just as the idea that every teacher is a guidance counselor sounded good on paper but has not proved practical, so too has the idea that every teacher is a teacher of reading been unsuccessful, because anything important cannot be everyone's business in general and no one's business in particular. It is important that the entire staff be concerned with reading. But someone must be responsible for a well-planned reading program. This takes time, training, and effort. Reading is too important to be left to chance. All boys and girls must be assured of the best reading instruction possible, and this can occur only when the program is directed by competent leaders through direct instruction.

Diagnosis

Children vary in intelligence, background, attitudes, and other similar areas as well as in the ability to read. An attempt must be made to determine levels of reading competencies so that a good reading program can be planned.

A group reading test administered at the beginning of the year can be used to place children in proper materials and/or ability groups. Tests that yield comprehension, rate, and vocabulary scores are especially useful with regular junior high classes. Any reputable test will at least indicate the various levels in the class and provide some indication of the instruction needed. In many cases the grade placement on the test gives an optimistic picture of a child's ability to perform in material at that level, and many teachers assign materials that are easier than the grade placement indicated by the test.

The diagnostic tests needed depend on the pupils in a teacher's class. Low ability groups may need tests in phonics, basic sight words, oral reading, listening, or structural analysis. Information other than reading, testing that may be used in the diagnosis includes intelligence scores (be cautious of low I.Q.'s on the records of poor readers), attitudes and interests, home and school background, and health information including recent auditory and visual screening results.

Group and individual diagnosis should be continued throughout the school years. Adjustments will need to be made with materials and/or ability groups because children grow at different rates and because we may have over or underestimated the reading level of a child as a result of a group test.

Instruction

Reading instruction in grades seven through nine should be based on the needs of pupils as determined by each teacher's diagnosis of his pupils. Schools in disadvantaged districts may have to emphasize basic skills normally taught in the primary or intermediate grades for most of the children. Other schools will be located in districts which tend to produce elementary school pupils who need only very advanced training in the junior high school.

Most children will progress through the primary and intermediate grades in a normal manner and will be ready for work in vocabulary, comprehension, speed, and study skills in the junior high school. Exercises in structural analysis, use of context clues, work with the dictionary, and wide reading, will all help to improve children's vocabularies. All work to increase speed should be accompanied by a test of comprehension. Fortunately there are many commercial materials which, when matched with the right child, will aid in helping to improve these areas.

Instruction in Grades Seven and Eight. (8-4 plan). Children in grades seven and eight in the 8-4 plan are generally placed in either regular classes with a wide range of abilities, in ability groups, or in small remedial groups.

In a heterogeneously grouped seventh or eighth grade in an average district, children in a seventh grade class will be reading at many different levels. *Figure 1* is a typical week's work for such a seventh grade class. This program takes into consideration the levels usually found in an average seventh grade class. No basic textbook can be used successfully with the entire class because the reading levels are so different.

When classes are ability-grouped in grades seven and eight in the 8-4 plan, there is still a wide range of abilities in each reading class because most schools using this plan will not have over three sections of children in the seventh or eighth grades. The top child in the lowest ability group is usually far superior to the bottom child, and a multi-level approach is still needed. A weakness of this plan is that usually all three sections of a grade level must meet at the same time because the children may not be grouped for the rest of their classes. This means that three teachers, rather than one, must plan lessons and that a good reading teacher can be used for only one section. An advantage for the slow group is that a set of books such as the Harcourt-Brace-World companion series, which will be much better suited to the needs of the typical slow group than will a regular basal textbook, can be used as the class textbook.

Remedial reading can be given to those seventh and eighth graders who have serious problems in reading. These children need to meet with a trained teacher in groups of four to eight from two to five

FIGURE 1 — GRADE 7 WEEKLY LESSON PLAN

	MONDAY	TUESDAY	WEDNESDAY	THURSDAY	FRIDAY
High	SRA IIIa Reading Laboratory or Controlled Reader	Paperback Discussion Group	Readers Digest or Reading for Meaning 8-12 or Be a Better Reader 2-6	Better Reading Book II or III Reading for Understanding, Junior Edition	Basal Textbook
Average	Better Reading Reading for Meaning 7	SRA IIIa Reading Laboratory or Controlled Reader	Basal Textbook	Basal Textbook Be a Better Reader I	Readers Digest, Advanced Skill Builders or Reading for Understanding, Junior Edition
Low	Basal Textbook Companion Series	Basal Textbook Companion Series Phonics We Use E or F	SRA IIIa Reading Laboratory or Controlled Reader	Readers Digest Skill Builders 1-6 Webster Word Wheels	Using Context A-F or New Practice Reader A-E Recreational Reading High Interest Books

days a week. Junior high school pupils with severe reading problems have learned to avoid participation in reading activities in regular classrooms. Remedial teaching should involve their writing, reading orally, and doing other activities that make it difficult for them to tune themselves out. Several activities should be planned for each session to keep the attention of the children. A typical day's work might include basic sight words, a phonics game, one skill lesson from a commercial skillbook, and oral reading using high interest and low readability books.

Instruction in Grades Seven to Nine (6-3-3 plan). If a junior high school reading class is taught by a high school teacher who is subject oriented (literature), is untrained in the teaching of reading, and is content to stay that way, and who uses the same materials and techniques for all children except to go slower with remedial groups in a basic textbook written for average children, then the program will not succeed in reaching the goals of a good reading program. Unfortunately, this is frequently the case in a junior high school reading program. Conversely, if the children are grouped according to ability, if teachers are trained, and if proper materials are available, the reading program should be successful.

The 6-3-3 plan has the advantages of larger numbers of pupils for more effective grouping, the concentration of reading instruction to a few teachers, and, because of this, the possibility of well equipped reading rooms where the many materials needed for a successful program can be properly used.

Most of the children in an average junior high school can be placed in regular developmental reading classes where literature books plus a variety of skill materials can be used. Those who need special instruction can be placed in remedial classes where primary and intermediate grade level materials of high interest can be used.

Instruction in Grade Nine (8-4, 5-3-4, or 4-4-4 plans). The 2,400 pupils who enter Evansville high schools each year seem to fall into four categories not including special education. Children in the bottom ten per cent cannot read at a sixth grade level according to the latest norms on the *Stanford Achievement Test,* and are placed in a remedial reading class called Reading I. Those who score between the tenth and thirtieth percentiles are enrolled in regular size reading classes using the companion series of the Harcourt-Brace-World books. The other seventy per cent of the children are placed in regular or advanced classes and use a ninth grade literature book.

The remedial reading class can last for as long as four semesters, but credit is given for only one. At the end of the semester that a pupil can read at sixth grade level, placement is made for him at the beginning of the companion series program. Remedial reading and developmental reading are taught in a specially equipped room which has pacers, a tachistoscope, reading films, and a variety of skill books and high interest, low readability recreational books. Developmental reading is taken by all high school pupils who come to the reading room with their regular teacher to work under the reading teacher for an intensive four weeks course. Children in grades seven to nine can also take a comprehensive reading course in the summer, which never duplicates materials used in the regular program.

Staffing Problems. There are problems in staffing any program in grades seven through nine. In the 8-4 plan used in Evansville, there are thirty-three schools out of forty-five that have grades seven and eight in their buildings. No school has over seven sections of reading in an eight period day, so under ideal conditions thirty-three teachers would teach reading. This year there are 105. The 8-4 plan causes staffing problems because special rooms or teachers are needed for such subjects as home economics, art, music, physical education, and science. Modern mathematics is difficult, English requires a competent teacher, and many materials are needed in a good social studies program. When there are three sections each of the seventh and eighth grades, it becomes convenient to make reading the "swing" subject.

Bulletin A-1 of the Illinois Department of Public Instruction, *The Junior High School Program in Illinois,* highlights the problem of teacher preparation for grades 7-9. Many teachers in junior high school are prepared to teach in the elementary or high school and are waiting for an opportunity to transfer to those schools. A large number of English teachers who were trained to be high school teachers have had no course in how to teach reading.

Conclusion

Many difficult problems confront junior high school educators as they attempt to plan the best reading program possible for their children. Some of these problems are selecting an organizational plan suitable for their children, providing in-service training, and providing proper tests and instructional materials.

There are many effective ways to organize classroom activities. Any successful method will require a trained and dedicated teacher who is willing to find out the needs of his children and to plan a reading program based on those needs.

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B. JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

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1. Reading Essentials in the Junior High School Program

Edith C. Janes

Reading is a series of complex activities which varies with the kind of material read, the purposes for reading, and the ends or values sought. Few pupils completing sixth grade read well enough to master high school and college subjects. They are not mature enough to understand complex reading skills and difficult words, many of which they do not need until they reach secondary school.

The elementary school lays the foundation for reading, but the complex skills needed to achieve maturity in reading must be taught in the junior and senior high school. Planned instruction and practice in increasingly difficult interpretations is a definite part of the upper grade curriculum in order to maintain skills learned previously, and to develop techniques for applying them to more complex material.

Reading Essentials

The reading essentials in a junior high school program are: (1) instruction that is planned to enable each child to move forward progressively and in harmony with child growth and interest; (2) a curriculum planned to enable each student to make maximum progress in accordance with his experiential background, his maturity level, his reading ability, and his mental ability; (3) adequate materials to provide instruction and independent reading at the wide range of reading levels found in each class.

Instruction

The first essential is instruction. The teacher must plan a day-by-day program that puts into action the basic principles of good instruction in working with pupils, in selecting materials, and in presenting lessons.

Teachers should help pupils do such things as:

1. Understand their weaknesses and ways of overcoming them
2. Establish realistic goals for themselves
3. Establish good study habits
4. Gain motivation and encouragement by evidences of progress, such as scores recorded on charts and graphs and improved scholastic achievement

Teachers should plan instruction and practice with the following in mind:

1. To provide maximum improvement, materials for instruction should be at instructional level or slightly lower.
2. To estimate the instructional level, use an Informal Reading Inventory, or use a standardized reading test.
3. To select books for recreation and enjoyment, encourage pupils to choose books at least one grade level below their instructional level, so that they do not encounter difficult words and new concepts.
4. To develop vocabulary and gain information, encourage able readers to "stretch" into harder books occasionally.

Teachers will find that it is important:

1. *To plan guided reading lessons.*
2. *To plan lessons to improve specific weaknesses.*
3. *To use the Teacher's Guide or Manual accompanying the text* to save time in lesson planning.
4. *To allow pupils to discuss related experiences,* difficult words and new concepts in order to develop interest and provide background.
5. To instruct pupils in methods of reading specific types of material in order to help pupils understand the direct relationship between developmental work in the reading class and their reading in all subject areas in school and in their leisure reading.
6. To give pupils an opportunity to read a selection silently before expecting them to read orally.
7. To present lessons in varied and interesting ways to stimulate interest.
8. To help students realize that some subjects may not be intensely interesting but must be mastered for future use.

The Reading Program

The second essential is a curriculum planned to provide instruction to improve (1) vocabulary skills, (2) comprehension skills, (3) study skills, (4) flexibility or rate, and (5) oral expression.

Vocabulary

Vocabulary includes both the skills of word identification and word meaning. In application, these skills complement each other. The junior high vocabulary program should provide for review, instruction, and practice to insure that every pupil can attack words with ease and can use methods that facilitate the learning of word meanings.

Pupils need to know how and when to use context clues, structural analysis, phonetic analysis, syllabication, and the dictionary to become independent readers.

Comprehension

Students must learn to read, to interpret, and to react to increasingly difficult material. They must be able to read for such purposes as to find main ideas and supporting details; to follow the sequence in development of plots, characters, or arguments; and to follow directions.

Students must be able to distinguish between fact and opinion, detect bias and prejudice, make inferences, and identify the author's purpose—important requisites of an informed citizen.

Study Skills

Students should be able to locate information in their own texts, in dictionaries, and in reference materials. They should be able to arrange events in sequence, to make outlines, to summarize, and to take notes. Instruction and practice in taking various types of tests develops self-confidence and improves scholastic grades.

Effective reading in the content areas must be taught. The teacher of each subject should be responsible for teaching new concepts, vocabulary, comprehension skills, and study skills required to master his specific subject.

Flexibility or Rate

The expanding curriculum in the junior high school makes it essential for students to show continuous growth in understanding when and how to use the techniques of skimming, rapid reading, and study reading.

Special projects to help pupils develop flexible reading rates provide practice in reading for specific purposes and motivation for wide reading. This wide reading provides the practice of reading skills so necessary to efficient reading.

Oral Expression

Students in the junior high school need instruction and practice to improve in ability to utilize voice, expression, and attitude to do purposeful oral reading.

Materials

The third essential of a junior high school program is sufficient materials at appropriate levels. School wide planning should provide instruction and related activities in:

1. Basic materials which provide a sequential development of reading skills and practice in using them. These may be reading texts, workbooks, multilevel materials, or may include all three.
2. Content area texts.
3. Supplementary readers and texts which are easier than those used for instruction and which can be used independently.
4. Current materials such as student and adult newspapers and magazines.
5. Reference books such as a dictionary, an encyclopedia, and an atlas.
6. Library books in a wide variety of topics and at various reading levels to provide recreational and informational reading.

Summary

To be successful, a reading program must go beyond the development of reading skills. The student learns to appreciate books. He develops an intellectual curiosity and a realization that books can help him satisfy this curiosity. He reads to answer questions that he is reluctant to ask adults. He develops the habit of reading widely for pleasure and information. The amount, the variety, and the quality of what is read is the truest evaluation of the effectiveness of the reading program.

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4. Can Organization Patterns Enable Us to Improve Reading Skills?

JOHN McINNES

WAYS of organizing for reading instruction today are less rigid than they have ever been. We face the possibility of changing classroom organization to facilitate better instruction. Basic to organizational pattern is a knowledge of students' needs. We must make a continuing and comprehensive study of these, using not only standardized tests, but also informal tests, open-book examinations and teachers' continuing diagnoses.

Large group instruction through team teaching and television provides a way of informing students about reading. However, practice in using reading skills comes about best in classes or small groups. Small group instruction provides opportunities to teach the higher level language skills. Children learn to define, explain, clarify, illustrate, elaborate their statements in discussing the novels they read. They learn to elicit this kind of language performance from each other. They look for definition, explanation, clarification, support of generalizations as they read critically. They attempt to use what they have learned when they write.

Individualized instruction is carried out in skill development and in the study of literature. In some classrooms, pupils reading different novels meet in small groups to discuss questions that apply to many books. Pupils working individually on skill-building material meet to discuss how skills can be applied to reading and writing generally. Individual assignments calling for preparation of papers related to novels being read help children collect, organize, present and evaluate information. Individualized work in reading should be closely related to discussion and writing.

It is our responsibility to continue to test organizational patterns for their instructional possibilities and limitations. We must continue to make organization serve instructional needs.

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3. Pupil Behavior: A Clue to Teaching Reading

GLADYS NATCHEZ

UNDERSTANDING the meaning behind behavior yields important clues to effective teaching. One teacher, for instance, changed her approach considerably after taking a second look at her pupils. She had thirty students in her seventh grade English class, reading at fifth grade level and below. At the end of two months she was totally frustrated. She conscientiously tried everything she knew. The pupils remained unruly and rebellious. She felt that nothing further could be done until someone disciplined these children and helped them become more receptive.

She talked to the reading specialist. By sharing her problem and listening to another point of view, she became less antagonistic. During the discussion, she began to realize how hard school must be for those with such low achievement. They were rebelling from frustration—not against her alone. Toward the close of the conference, the teacher asked the reading specialist what she could do. Together they outlined a program.

Although the teacher was still somewhat dubious, she returned to the classroom with more conviction. She enlisted the pupils' interest by telling them the whole plan. First they would have an individual reading appraisal in which they could find out exactly what they could do and where they needed help. This was for their own, not official, use. Also, they would have at their disposal a variety of new materials that the librarian and teacher had collected. The books were especially written to appeal to pupils who disliked reading.

The teacher's renewed concern caught the pupils' attention. Although they responded reluctantly, they soon saw the reason for each procedure. They found the special books less objectionable than the former ones. Some pupils even obtained real pleasure from them.

One of the pupils, Frank, remained a real problem. He was arrogant, refused to do assignments and sat in class doing nothing. The teacher was furious because he threatened to ruin all that she had done. She asked the reading specialist to come to see him.

The day the specialist arrived, she found Frank tearing bits of paper and rolling them into small balls. In contrast to this immature occupation, Frank looked like a man-about-town — dapper, suave, haughty. He had on a pink striped shirt with black leather patches at the elbows. His black chinos clung tightly to the lower portion of his torso.

The reading teacher went over to Frank and acknowledged how hard it was for some pupils to find the right books. She said that she wanted to try some out with him. As soon as she asked him to read, Frank turned a bright crimson. The blood started rising in his neck and slowly reached his cheeks and forehead.

He stammered, "I can't read today 'cause my eyes are so blurry."

The reading specialist responded to Frank's agony. Instead of reading, she described the contents of several books she had brought. She asked him to choose one to read another day.

Later, she told his teacher about Frank's torment and how he sputtered and got red.

"You mean," the teacher answered slowly, "you mean—it's *that* painful for him?"

Together they considered why it must be such an ordeal. A boy who wants to appear strong, competent, and attractive cannot face the degredation of being such a poor reader. He has to avoid participating in classwork by pretending that he does not care. If one does not care, one need not try. If one does not try, one does not fail in front of a class. In this way, he could remain safe. Probably Frank settled for such a precarious solution rather than face the enormity of his problem. The pity of it was that, undoubtedly, he still could learn.

When the teacher guessed the deeper meaning of Frank's behavior, her annoyance subsided. Instead of taking personal offense at Frank's behavior, she realized his despair. She was willing to try anything to help him read. Slowly he reacted to her acceptance. Acceptance by the teacher alone, however, would not have been enough. He also was expected to learn—and so he did.

Finding the meaning behind behavior allowed this teacher to become more effective. Her willingness to seek assistance and to try again, led her to re-examine her pupils. She caught a glimpse of how they really felt and how they were covering up their frustrations. Defiance often disguised despair. Withdrawal sometimes meant resignation. As the teacher's understanding replaced resentment, her own frustration lessened. This brought forth fresh effort from pupils too. Some ventured forth timidly; some needed extensive encouragement, but the important beginning was made.

When teachers utilize behavior as a clue to youngsters' feelings, they gain a new perspective. With a new outlook, both teacher and pupils are freer to face their difficulties and continue the struggle forward. Each step means a chance for increased competency. Pupils may have limitations, but compassion and empathy evoke responsiveness and growth. When pupils have a chance to know and to grow, they start on the road toward their own fulfillment.

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18. Improving Reading in Junior High School

WILLIAM E. PAULO

The task of describing ways in which reading instruction may be improved in junior high school presented us with a real challenge in our preparation for the Annual Conference of the I.R.A. Because of the great diversity among junior high schools in terms of their philosophies, teacher talents, materials available and student needs; we decided to identify the primary considerations which should be taken into account when one organizes a new reading program or evaluates an existing program.

We began our search for such primary considerations in junior high school by identifying two groups of students. One group, which we called "able readers," consisted of ten boys and girls who indicated an I.Q. of 90-110 as measured by group tests and who were achieving at or above grade level expectancy in reading. This group formed our control sample. We then identified a second group of students, seventh and eighth graders, who tested within the same I.Q. range, 90-110, but who were two years or more retarded in reading achievement as measured by standardized tests. We called this second group, our experimental sample, "disabled readers." It was our hypothesis that if we could identify any characteristics, traits or patterns which were unique to either group, we would then have a premise regarding what should or should not be included as the primary considerations of an effective reading program. We further felt that the simple design of this action research would lend itself to duplication by virtually any classroom teacher who wished to repeat the process with his own students.

Our first task, then, was to study the school records of our ten disabled readers in an attempt to identify some characteristics unique to this group. In addition to meeting the aforementioned criteria, each of the children selected had attended the same school district beginning with grade one: thus, complete school records were available for each child.

In surveying the records of the ten disabled readers, the following incidences were noted:

Incidence	Students Out of Ten
Slight hearing loss	one
Myopic (wore glasses)	two
Mixed hand-eye dominance	one
Poor health record	one
Broken home	two

The high incidence of physical and emotional problems associated with the disabled reader group suggested a positive correlation between these findings and their problems. Our task appeared to be one of investigating the relationship of the individual child's physico-emotional problem and its effect upon his reading disability. Before pursuing this premise we surveyed the records of the ten able readers in a like manner. The following incidences were noted for the able readers:

Incidence	Students Out of Ten
Slight hearing loss	none
Wore glasses	three
Mixed hand-eye dominance	one
Poor health record	two
Broken home	one
Bi-lingual home	one

It became immediately obvious that histories of some physical and emotional problems could not be considered unique to either of our reading groups—our task was not as clear-cut as we had earlier assumed.

We did find, however, that the disabled readers differed from the able in that each disabled student had experienced a pattern of failure in reading from the first grade on. This failure pattern was evidenced by low grades in reading, teacher comments, and several retentions or trial promotions.

What effect had this failure pattern had upon the attitudes of the disabled readers toward themselves in relationship to school and reading? To answer this question we realized that we would have to devise a technique which would elicit their innermost feelings. We then discussed our project and our problem with Dr. Verne Faust, psychologist of the San Diego County Department of Education, who is noted for his work in the self-perceptions of learners. Dr. Faust encouraged us to use some form of projective techniques as a means of eliciting student feelings. We surveyed several projective techniques, including the Rorschach and Thematic Apperception Techniques; none of which appeared to satisfy our need to focus student responses on school and reading.

Under Dr. Faust's guidance we developed a projective technique which would better serve our specific purpose: Pictures depicting four school scenes were taken with a Polaroid camera. They were designed to involve the students in such a manner as to evoke their feelings about school and reading. The first picture shows a boy standing in a classroom looking at an open book held in his hands with several other students seated at their desks around him. A teacher stands facing him about ten feet away. None of the people in the picture display any unusual emotion. All of the students are of junior high school age.

The following interview with one disabled student illustrates his reactions to the first picture:

Dr. Faust: "What is the teacher thinking and feeling there, John?"
John: "Huh, I dunno, looks like she's kinda happy about it."
Dr. Faust: "How does the boy feel about it? Just use your imagination."
John: "He is unhappy. He probably doesn't like to read or something like that."
Dr. Faust: "Doesn't like to? Why do you suppose he doesn't like to?"
John: "He feels he can't read."
Dr. Faust: "Just using your imagination, why do you feel he thinks he can't read?"
John: "He has probably missed a couple of words and the kids have laughed at him and stuff like that. He feels kinda small."
Dr. Faust: "Is this a boy, just looking at him, who doesn't give up very easily, or does he feel like giving up lots of times?"
John: "He looks like he has given up lots of times. Sometimes if he is given little stuff, easy stuff, he'd like it. If he could understand it. . . ."

All the other disabled readers gave similar responses. By contrast, the able readers all saw positive relationships in the picture and interpreted the same scene with these responses:

> "This boy is reading aloud in his social studies class. . . . The other children are interested and ready to ask him some good questions. . . . He feels good and looks happy. . . ."

We used three more indeterminate pictures: one shows the back of a boy's head as he enters a door marked "Principal"; a second picture shows a male adult standing beside a boy seated at a school desk with a book open before him; the third picture shows a boy entering a home with his report card in his hand. Just as in the first picture, all disabled readers interpreted each situation in negative terms.

> "He's sneaking in the back door with his report card. . . . He wants his mother to sign it before his dad sees it. . . . His dad will probably wreck him royal."

With the exception of the picture showing the boy entering a principal's office, the able readers continued to see each of these situations in positive terms:

> "He feels he had done his best in school. . . . He has a 'B' in math and science. . . ."

Interestingly enough, the principal's office seemed to arouse anxieties in all of the children interviewed, able and disabled readers alike.

We had suspected that the consistent failure pattern associated with the disabled readers had had a marked effect upon their attitude toward reading. The responses made by both groups during our interviews appeared further to support our hypothesis.

The following conclusions were established on the basis of our survey of the students' records and their interviews:

1. The failure pattern unique to the disabled reader group had been a long-term one, originating for each child at first-grade level.

2. This pattern of failure had had a markedly negative effect upon the attitudes of the disabled readers toward school and reading.
3. By the time he had reached junior high school age, the disabled reader's negative attitude toward reading was firmly fixed as an integral part of his total personality.

Recommendation

It is, therefore, our recommendation that all reading programs make provisions for fostering in children a positive, healthy attitude toward themselves and toward reading. The role of attitudes which children embrace is the intangible ingredient heretofore grossly ignored in evaluating and organizing effective reading programs. Positive attitudes can only be built upon a series of successful school experiences. A reading program which denies the existence of a wide range of differences in ability, achievement, and interests among children within the same classroom is destined to mediocrity. In providing for these differences we must assume that the teacher will have a limited number of students per day, that there will be a wide range of reading materials available and that the program will be organized around the reading needs of the children.

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C. SECONDARY LEVEL

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1. Basic Considerations in a Junior High School Reading Program

Totsie W. Ross
Texas City Public Schools

Do we fully appreciate the significance of the current international interest in reading or, for that matter, the special consideration given to reading programs beyond the elementary level in this conference? In the not too distant past neither of these conditions existed. How can we account for the time, interest, effort, and funds now being devoted to this subject? If success is to crown our efforts in this great effort, there must be some comprehension and knowledge of the underlying forces and ideas that foster this concern by educators at all levels.

Underlying Forces

A brief look at the history of American reading instruction reveals the barometric function of reading instruction. According to Nila Banton Smith, the story of American reading instruction reflects the changing religious, political, economic, social, and educational institutions of our growing nation *(4)*. In view of this function of reading instruction and the rapid changes in every phase of our civilization today, the exertion of tremendous effort in the search for the changes in reading instruction that will meet the needs of today's society should not be surprising.

Reading instruction as an important part of the total educational program is caught up in the dilemma confronting our generation as it seeks answers to such questions as education for whom and education for what. The answers to these questions have been sought by educational leaders of every age. No doubt each generation believed that the educational problems facing it were greater than at any other time in the nation's history *(2)*. Yet we feel reasonably sure that past generations were not called upon to face rapid and drastic changes in every phase of life and living as we today are facing. Changes of the past were gradual and usually predominantly in one area of life's activities, such as religion or politics, with the educational changes to meet the new needs lagging far behind them. How can we, people who understand so little about our environment and our major problems in every phase of our civilization, devise an educational program that will prepare our children for tomorrow?

Today's space age civilization demands immediate answers in all areas of society. Right answers must be chosen or destruction has been chosen. Frustration is inevitable. A calm appraisal of the situation reveals a universal need for effective communication. With all of the means and avenues of communications at our disposal we are failing miserably in the real art of communication with our fellowman. The area of communication skills is the connecting link between past and future educational programs.

Although we do not know what will be essential and worthwhile tomorrow in all of the subject areas of our curriculum, we do know that the vast storehouse of knowledge in all areas will be available to those who can read *(2)*. So we must teach mastery of communication skills as rapidly as possible.

Statistics indicate that more than 10 per cent of the elementary and secondary students in this country are retarded in reading and that from 20 to 30 per cent of secondary students are retarded one or more years in reading. The need to solve these problems has stimulated our present interest and efforts in the improvement of the teaching of reading and the development of effective reading programs from grade one through college.

This approach to a junior high school reading program may be questionable. Nevetheless, it is evident that the little Dutch boy who put his finger in the dike was well grounded in the values of the dike to the preservation of his people. Hence, he was willing to endure the physical, spiritual, emotional, and psychological strains necessary to hold the dike. So, too, must we also understand the values of achieving a strong reading program at all levels to the preservation of our civilization, if we are to endure the frustrations and disappointments we shall encounter in the struggle to establish sound reading programs all across our land. A knowledge of the whole is essential to the understanding of the importance of its segments.

Leadership

To develop a strong reading program at the junior high school level calls for dynamic, creative leadership. There must be a dedicated teacher, supervisor, curriculum director, or administrator who is willing to courageously attack the task of creating a favorable climate for reading instruction in the school system. The first and most important step at this point is to secure the cooperation of administrators, counselors, and key teachers. To create a favorable climate for the initiation of a secondary reading program oftentimes requires a change in the school system's philosophy of education and its philosophy of the teaching of reading. Normally changes in philosophy evolve slowly. These are not normal times and some changes must be brought about as rapidly as possible. A very good way to bring about these changes is to involve both teachers and administrators in an in-service improvement project to evaluate the reading abilities of the students from grade one through twelve and to appraise the system's philosophy of education. Fortunately the conditions that have made the curriculum changes imperative have also brought about a certain amount of readiness on the part of both educators and laymen for the acceptance of change. Alert educational leaders will capitalize upon the frenzied search for novel innovations by many people to advance the cause of reading and to bring about the needed innovations in reading instruction.

Philosophy

The viewpoint that the purpose of education is to impart knowledge and thereby transmit and preserve our heritage is no longer sufficient. Students should be thinkers as well as learners. They should recognize the place of discipline in every life and learn self-discipline. Guidance should be provided to assist students in choosing the right values and ideals by which to live. Mastery of communication skills should be a primary objective of education. Perhaps the most significant change in philosophy that should be sought is the organization of the elementary and secondary schools into one system that accepts the responsibility of meeting the educational needs of all the children of all the people.

Organization

The organization and objectives of the junior high school reading program should be developed by committees composed of elementary, junior, and senior high teachers, and administrators. Subcommittees should study problems in meeting the wide range of abilities in classes, class size, special reading-help techniques for individuals, classroom organization, recognition of the gifted, programs for the gifted, use of supplementary materials, use of audio-visual materials, and effective ways of motivating slow learners. The findings of all committees and in-service projects should determine the organizational pattern within the limitations of personnel and funds available for the program.

The plan of organization and the objectives of the reading program should be presented to the total staff for study, revisions, and ultimate acceptance. Once the program is accepted every teacher and administrator should be personally committed to the achievement of its goals. To succeed, the organizational plan and objectives of the reading program must be understood by students, parents, members of the school board, and all school personnel.

Teachers

The next step is the selection of teachers, which is the most important and most difficult task to be accomplished. It is the most important task because the teacher is the only one who can translate the goals and objectives of the program into reality in the lives of the students. Its difficulty stems from the fact that there are so few professionally prepared reading teachers. The teachers most often chosen come either from the English department of the school or from the upper elementary grades. No magic is wrought in either of these teachers by merely changing the assignment.

Rarely has the English teacher ever received one hour in professional preparation in reading or in teaching methods. It is hard for such a teacher to accept the idea that he needs any help in teaching or that he is responsible for motivating interest and guiding learning.

The upper elementary teacher is usually an outstanding instructor in both developmental and remedial reading, and it is true that many of the same reading problems can be found in both the upper elementary grades and the secondary school classes. But there the similarity ends. The problems of the secondary school are foreign to the teacher and he desperately needs a thorough understanding of the secondary school student and the type of reading program that will meet his needs *(3)*.

The situation is not hopeless, for somewhere in each school system are dedicated English and upper elementary grade teachers who have a sincere interest in reading. They must be sought out and encouraged to attend college courses, reading workshops, institutes, and clinics, and take an active part in local in-service reading programs. Expenses for this additional training should be borne by the school system.

Reading instruction must be a regular course in the curriculum with a chairman of the department. The chairman should receive the same amount of released time and salary increment as the chairmen of the other departments.

Methods

The teacher's instructional approach and the method used must fit the individual. This implies that the teacher must know both the student and many methods of instruction in order to fit the right methods to the right child. Probably more important than the method itself is the way the teacher uses it. The teacher's relationship with the student, attitude, patience, and understanding contribute much to the success of any specific method *(5)*.

The ever increasing number of retarded readers and the demand for increased production in all aspects of life are pressures affecting reading instruction. There is widespread evidence of the step up in reading instruction to produce higher competency in a shorter time *(4)*. This pressure has also resulted in the origination of many new methods of teaching reading and the modification of old ones. Each method has its own particular values and teachers should become familiar with them.

Materials

The types and quantity of equipment and materials will be closely related to the plan of organization and the objectives of the program. The selection of these items will require reading teachers to become acquainted with a wide range of materials which will probably be totally or partially new to them. It is wise to use the critical reviews of new materials available in most professional journals *(3)*. A careful study should be made of all varieties of skill texts, machines, audio-visual materials, and individual work exercises in reading *(1)*. An abundance of supplementary material covering a broad selection of subjects of interest to junior high school students written on a wide range of ability levels should be provided for independent reading. Most important is the help available in the selection of reading instructional materials from reading specialists in our colleges and universities.

In-Service Programs

Many factors combine to make it mandatory that a continuous in-service pro-

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gram in reading improvement be conducted. In-service programs must be organized to improve teacher training, to study the many new approaches to the teaching of reading, to understand the secondary student, to evaluate the abundance of new equipment and materials, and to continuously evaluate the reading program.

The administration should structure an in-service program which provides for local group participation. Local groups should be encouraged to identify areas for study and to plan and carry through projects which will achieve desired changes.

Cooperation is the key to the success of in-service projects. Every in-service improvement project should be the cooperative effort of both teachers and administrators. Consultant help should be provided as needed.

Another effective in-service program is the special training courses for teachers with the school system underwriting the cost of the program. The use of the regular summer school for students as a laboratory for teachers enrolled in special training classes or local in-service study groups is another effective method of improving instruction.

In the development of a junior high school reading program there must be a wise mixture of new ideas with basic principles of learning and teaching to produce a sound program. A sound program will produce competent readers, and to quote Frank Jennings: "The more competent readers a society has, the greater will be its capacity for doing good to itself."

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c. Reading Centers and New Developments in the Teaching of Reading in the Junior High School

KATHERINE E. TORRANT

"The dear people do not know how long it takes to learn to read. I have been at it all my life and I cannot yet say I have reached the goal."—*Goethe*

Great Challenge

Authorities in the field of reading, and many sophisticated adults today, would no doubt agree quite heartily with Goethe's remarks and would include themselves among the "dear people." Although a prolific amount of study and research has been reported in this major field, there are indeed many unanswered questions and problems which present a very real challenge.

Many social forces are operating to arouse an interest and awareness of reading and its teaching. These are closely related to the changing educational scene, and the almost frantic efforts being made to adjust education to the demands of the times. Never does there seem to have been a time of greater ferment in education, of greater pressures or of greater challenge.

Keeping our professional, parent and lay groups aware of this background of pressures and ferment in education is of utmost importance in this age of scientific developments and universal social change. Informing them on present-day plans, explorations and future developments is a major responsibility of those concerned with good education, at all levels. The tremendous interest in reading and its impact on future success, demand a sharp look and constant appraisal of present practices. Many questions arise: Just what kind of reading program produces competent ever-maturing readers, who find genuine satisfaction and use for the material read, whether at the picture-book stage or at elementary, high school or college level of reading?

Research Leads the Way

Here at Newton, both professional and lay groups take great pride in their schools and are ever searching for answers to these questions. Thus the Harvard-Newton Reading Survey was launched by a research team in 1956-57, to identify both "over-achievement" and "under-achievement" in reading through a study of all third, sixth, and ninth graders' performance on tests, plus a sampling of first grade pupils. The team was also charged with making concrete recommendations on ways to provide better reading services to all pupils at these grade levels.

The study and recommendations resulted in the addition of four reading specialists to the Division of Instruction staff, 1958, to serve 26 elementary schools and the addition of two reading specialists beginning September, 1959, to serve the five junior high schools of Newton.

The general aims of the specialists at both elementary and junior high school levels are similar and reflect the basic considerations and goals of the total reading program—Kindergarten through Junior College level, spelled out in *119th Annual School Report,* 1958-59, Newton Public Schools, Newton, Massachusetts.

Top Priority

One of the prime aims of the specialist working with the principal and faculty of each school is to aid in developing a *balanced* reading program for *all* pupils. A much sharper, clearer picture of the various *levels of interpretation* in a balanced program is essential to all teachers if pupils are to become competent readers. These levels move along a continuum, which starts at the elementary level and continues to grow in length and depth as pupils progress through our high schools and colleges. Attention *to each level of interpretation* is essential as pupils move through our schools if the needs of individuals are to be met.

What are basic levels which teachers need to keep constantly in focus to insure better performance and understanding? Reading authorities list various levels; the following five levels are ones which specialists here use in their work:

1. *Vocabulary recognition level* and understanding of word development.
2. *General impression level,* dealing with broad, general questions.
3. *Literal comprehension level,* dealing with explicit directions and direct questions requiring specific information.
4. *Interpretive level,* going beyond the facts, drawing conclusions, predicting, evaluating and analyzing ideas critically.
5. *Catalytic level,* resulting in a clearer impression of self and others; evolution of social and personal insights, fundamental values and changes in behavior.

Getting across this idea of balance and levels of interpretation seems to be one of the most difficult jobs for specialists, since many teachers seem to feel that one should learn "how" to read at the primary grade level.

Through conferences, workshops, grade level meetings, classroom demonstrations, case conferences and exhibits of new materials, the in-service training of teachers grows under the leadership of each specialist.

Elementary Specialists' Role

At the elementary school level, the specialists form close relationships with the entire staff, since they are assigned to elementary schools for one entire semester. Their work is coordinated with the regular classroom program; planning with each teacher before and after observation or demonstration, thus promoting the team approach.

Demonstrations may call for choral reading, play reading, use of recordings, directed reading lessons, training in visual or auditory memory.

Often teachers want specific help with the pupils who just can't remember words.

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In this case, re-enforcement is suggested through all sensory areas. Use of the *Pocket-Tac,* a manual device to improve visual perception, has proved motivating and an aid to concentration. *Word Analysis Practice* cards have provided opportunity for individual or team learning. *Pathways to Phonics Skills* records have proved particularly helpful when used consistently, as have filmstrips *Learning Letter Sounds* and *Phonics: A Key to Better Reading.*

Introducing *SRA Reading Laboratories,* setting up plans for *Arrow* or *Weekly Reader Children's Book Clubs,* and helping them in the selection of trade books, including paperbacks, is all part of the job of the specialist. May H. Arbuthnot's *Children and Books,* Tooze's and Krone's *Literature and Music,* Bowker's *Best Books for Children* and *Textbooks in Print* are tools which list and help guide choices.

Junior High Specialists' Role

Specialists working at the junior high level are more seriously hampered as they try to work with school schedules and the variety of activities and demands made on teachers and pupils. Their main focus of attention has been with the English-Social Studies Guidance teachers thus far, although their impact is felt among all teachers in grade level meetings and in case conferences on individual pupils. The majority of our junior high schools have assigned two periods a week to certain classroom teachers to develop reading-thinking skills. For *all* pupils, this means more attention to appreciation skills, and for others, it means re-enforcement and teaching of basic comprehension and vocabulary skills in addition.

Specialists are responsible for alerting teachers to the variety of materials available, and to help select the most appropriate materials. Guides prepared in Literature and Reading provide a frame of reference. Thus we find many of the more recent anthologies, containing definite guidance in the development of reading skills, being tried out in some classrooms. In other reading classes the *Golden Rule Series, Reading Roundup Series* and *Teen Age Tales* have proved of interest and value. *SRA Reading Laboratories, Reader's Digest Skillbuilders* and many other materials listed in our bibliography stimulate and promote reading power.

One of the exciting endeavors emerging from plans for junior high schools, 1959-60, and having considerable impact on teachers and pupils as well, was the introduction of large group instruction, using the *Vu-graph.* It was fortunate that a member of the Newton High School staff was available for counsel and guidance, as his work with this technique over the past few years at the high school level proved invaluable.

Both junior high specialists, working in the Reading Laboratory with the reading consultant, discussed the lessons to be presented on the Vu-graph after a poll had been taken among the teachers to discover which areas would prove most helpful to them. During the summer months, lessons in the following areas were prepared: Poetry, Main Idea, Paragraph Patterns, and Varying the Rate of Reading. Each presentation and lecture, with transparencies, is scheduled for thirty minutes. Following this, a series of graded exercises and practices is made available to teachers, for re-enforcement and transfer of skill for regular classroom practices.

Our trial run this year has pointed up necessary changes; already some material has been deleted and other ideas added. Thus, our lessons are ever changing in terms of teacher and pupil needs.

All Specialists Teach

Specialists on both elementary and junior high levels provide intensive help for a limited number of selected pupils in each of their respective schools. These pupils are carefully screened by principal and teachers at the elementary level and by guidance counselors at the junior high school level, so that candidates chosen are ones who can profit from consistent re-enforcement, practice and teaching of basic skills. Usually pupils chosen are of normal ability or better, reading one or more years below expectancy and free of serious emotional problems.

Following a variety of tests, interest inventories and teacher conferences, schedules are set up and small groups report to the Reading Centers for additional work. Each Reading Center is set up in each

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school with a variety of materials, including many trade books, as well as "high interest - low vocabulary" readers, games and study books. At the junior high school, specialists work in close cooperation with the school librarian. Teachers are kept informed on progress during the semester and pupils are urged to try new techniques in regular classroom work.

Elementary Centers

What materials have been popular at this level? Delightful beginners' books, published by Follett, Harper and Random House, have helped to promote the "individualized" approach among primary teachers, and brought laughter and satisfaction for the children choosing them. Materials designed by Dolch and Garrard Press's latest *Discovery* and *Junior Science Books; Jim Forest Readers* and Random's *Easy to Read Science Books* have been in constant demand, while authors Jean Lee Latham, C. A. Anderson, Clyde Bulla, Herbert Zim, Gertrude Warner, Patricia Lauber and Marcia Leach have captivated the minds of many fifth and sixth grade pupils. Durrell's *Thirty Classroom Plays* have been popular and made an impact on oral reading, as well.

Junior High Centers

Many exciting episodes occur in the junior high school centers, where a variety of material is used for re-enforcement and teaching of skills. Some of the most popular books include Meighan's *Phonics We Use, Books E and F,* Robert's *Word Attack,* Smith's *Be a Better Reader, Reader's Digest Skillbuilders,* and *SRA Reading Laboratories.* Popular authors include Betty Cavanna, Maureen Daly, Phyllis Fenner, John Tunis, James Kielgaard, Howard Pease, and a host of others, always on the "reserve for me" list in our libraries.

Pupils attending the centers are particularly interested in using the Speedioscope, accompanied by teacher made slides, designed to develop vocabulary, visual memory, and to aid pupils with organizational and recall skills.

Reactions to Program

The Reading Center Program has met with a high degree of success and some very positive results, thus far. Generally speaking, pupils attending the Reading Centers have been most enthusiastic and, according to test results, have made about twice the progress one might expect had they been exposed *only* to classroom procedures and practice.

Reports of principals, teachers, and parents indicate acceptance of the program to date.

It is indeed an exciting era in this major field of education. The challenge is great; may *The Torchlighters, Tomorrow's Teachers of Reading,* move forward with freedom, courage and wisdom.

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B. JUNIOR HIGH LEVEL

1. Practical Problems and Programs

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THE JUNIOR high schools of the Southwest provide an interesting field for the study of programs in teaching reading to speakers of another language. In almost every school system in the area a small percentage of the population is non-English speaking, with varying degrees of literacy in their native language. A remedial program for speakers at an intermediate English language level is often a need in the total language arts program. In many instances the programs are rather difficult to identify because they are operating in so many different contexts. The purpose of the observations made here will be to present a brief analysis of these programs with particular reference to their implications for the total reading programs. No attempt is made to describe systematic "programs." Rather, observations of reading classes, talks with teachers and administrators have suggested some generalizations about the problems and techniques in educational planning for all pupils in a bi-cultural area.

The different language programs for pupils who speak both native and target language inadequately are usually not designed specifically for pupils of foreign language background. Neither, is it to be implied that all pupils from these backgrounds need remedial programs. The pupils in these groups have been English-speaking, to some extent, since their early school years. They live in English-speaking communities. They are not segregated in the schools as pupils having special problems. If they were non-English speaking at six years of age, they probably were placed in a pre-first grade or in a summer program for non-English speaking beginners. Since that time no special programs have been devised. These pupils are usually retarded one to two years in reading achievement and may be over-age for their grade placement. Variance between the value patterns of home and school cultures is also a factor to be considered in cross-culture education.

With this group, the criteria for the development of a practical program in the communication skills emerge: (1) opportunity for the development of efficiency in language itself must be provided; (2) problems of bi-culturism must be met realistically and with respect for the diversity of cultures; (3) programs must include basic procedures for the structuring of knowledge; and (4) programs, to be practical, must consider the current educational settings and backgrounds of the teachers.

Programs are developing throughout the Southwest and elsewhere which attempt to meet these criteria in the teaching of reading at the intermediate level of proficiency in the second language. These programs might be categorized, according to their basic approach, as either linguistically-oriented or concept-oriented. While these programs do not exist as separate "types" without reference to each other, they differ in matter of emphasis.

In linguistically-oriented programs, teachers stress the importance of correct pronunciation but tend to approach it through some use of phonetic translation. The well-taken point of view is that the pupil cannot structure his experiences until he has control of the language. Thus, the pupils are dealing with language structures, studying basic sentence patterns, or perhaps, making simple substitutions.

The concept-oriented teacher emphasizes the having-something-to-talk-about approach and the pupils build patterns of word meanings (categories), gain information through auditory and visual media, structure this information into useful categories for problem solving. These teachers are concerned with the processes and structure of learning. Language learning is approached from the description of the process of learning to read.

One well-known program* seems to this observer to exemplify a most practical approach in that it combines that which is known from studies in language learning and from studies in the development of thinking skills. In the first place, the teacher who initiated the program has a sound background in anthropology and brings to this situation a realistic understanding of problems of multi-cultural education. Secondly, the techniques used in the teaching of sentence structure allow the students to create their own sentences in a meaningful context and to test their efforts through reference to the basic patterns. Further, because the emphasis is on the creative process in understanding grammatical relationships, techniques of discovery and manipulation of perceptual structures are widely used. Simple "brainstorming" techniques increase the students' knowledge of words to fit feelings and situations. In summary, the observer becomes aware of possibilities this program holds for improved remedial education in English as a second language. Its systematic approach to language control in a setting designed to improve the ability to structure experience and its emphasis on the improvement of the pupil's concept of himself as a learner are all significant aspects of the good program.

Another type of program is that of teaching English to pupils already literate in the native language. Whenever the system can support it, there is usually one class, at least, in this type of program. While the methods used in these classes are designated by a variety of names, they would appear to incorporate the following basic techniques: (1) pronunciation is given a major emphasis with the teacher serving as model and the students mimicking the pronunciation; (2) pattern practice is usually provided; (3) the order of hearing, speaking, reading, writing is followed. The problems of interpreting idiomatic expressions are met in a variety of ways from the use of comic books and high-interest, low reading level fiction books to much conversational practice with their English-speaking colleagues.

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Certain aspects of second language teaching have special significance for the teacher of reading in the area and are being gradually incorporated into the total reading program. The concept of contrastive elements in language, the relationship between fluency in reading and the techniques for the development of good rhythmic patterns in spoken language, sentence meaning as a possible function of sentence structure, and the significance of idiomatic expression and figurative language in comprehending reading material are basic understandings used, to some extent at least, by the reading teacher in her daily work.

The purpose of these observations has been to explore the practical problems and programs for teaching the reading of a second language to junior high school students. The conclusion to be drawn is that the teaching of a language involves the learning of the controls of that language, the recognition of culturally-oriented value systems, and the development of conceptualizing abilities. The lack of adequate diagnosis and the shortage of reading teachers with educational backgrounds to meet the problems of linguistically handicapped pupils are major deterrents to the further development of these programs. To establish better programs in the classroom and to provide better programs for teachers interested in learning more about this field the development and use of a theoretical framework for language learning is, we contend, the most effective approach to the problem. It is practical to formulate a framework within which the teacher can recognize the significant factors of concern and their relationships. A practical model in any learning area relates the variables specific to the situation to the general principles of learning and patterns of growth.

Today's teacher of reading has many understandings that relate to language learning: appreciation of the techniques for the development of good listening patterns as the basis for further language development; awareness of the role of reading in the individual's sense of adequacy; a concern for the interplay of many factors in the learning process; and a very basic knowledge of the skills needed to develop reading proficiency. The in-service program that recognizes a basic theoretical framework; that assists the teacher in the assessment of her very sizeable knowledge and understanding within the framework, and makes provision for the development of those knowledges and understandings which will offer greater structure and clarity to her teaching serves to improve the educational opportunities of all students in the development of adequate reading skills.

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B. JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

1. New Perspectives on the Multi-Media and the Junior High Reading Program

ROBERT M. WILSON

HAVING followed a basal program for six years during the elementary grades, the junior high school student is in an ideal situation to make maximal use of a multi-media approach. His elementary training included a well structured exposure to the various reading skills. Now, as he arrives in the junior high school, he can make the best use of a program which is highly flexible to meet his wide range of skills and interests.

A well developed multi-media program has the flexibility which is called for in this situation. A look at two such programs emphasizes: (1) flexibility; (2) individual differences; (3) student interests; and (4) periodic evaluation.

The first program is characterized by permitting the student to work one-half of his time in any area of his choice, and the other half under the direction of the reading teacher. Each student will be expected to choose an area in which he feels he can use his time most profitably. His decision will be guided by his scores on a pre-test evaluation, the reading teacher's guidance and his own personal inclinations. By selecting an area for emphasis in this manner the motivation which many junior high school students need so desperately is provided before the instruction actually starts. As the student begins to work in his chosen area, the teacher assumes a guidance and tutoring role which passes the initiative to the student. Allowing the student this freedom provides an individualized approach to reading in the junior high school which can be adjusted to best meet the needs and interests of these students. With the time remaining, the teacher may conduct a basal reading program, book discussions, project presentations, general vocabulary drills, etc.

A problem that occurs in this type of program is that the student may choose an area in which his needs are not the greatest. He should be permitted to work in this area to develop and refine his strength. The teacher, however, may want to set a nine-week limit on any one area. At this time all students would be asked to re-evaluate and possibly change their emphasis to an area of more need.

Another way of making use of the multi-media approach in the junior high school, is to have a carefully coordinated and sequential program in the seventh, eighth, and ninth grades. The seventh grade, for example, would be a time for the review of those basic reading skills which need to be strengthened and refined. In eighth grade the emphasis would be on applying reading skills to content areas, while work in the ninth grade would be in developing an interest in reading.

Cooperative efforts are essential in this type of program to assure the student's skill sequences. It should be noted that these areas cannot be completely isolated, and that some of each area will appear at each grade level. The reading teacher, however, can concentrate her efforts toward one basic goal during each year.

Both of these situations call for multi-media approaches and a flexible classroom situation. Both are geared to meet the needs of the junior high student.

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C. JUNIOR HIGH LEVEL

1. The Interrelatedness of Language Skills

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LET US accept the assertion that language skills are interrelated; it is verified by research and corroborated by experience in teaching. Correlational studies show the strong relationship of reading ability to listening, to oral language development, to the knowledge of grammatical terms and ability to manipulate syntactic structures, to breadth of vocabulary, to spelling, and to success in written composition.

Although research and experience testify that language skills are related, there is no implication that individuals develop these skills evenly. Nor are the relationships perfect. These concepts about the interrelatedness of language skills have significance for junior high school teachers as they develop principles and procedures for teaching.

Of special significance is the influence of these concepts on testing and the interpretation of test results. A junior high school student's achievement in reading and writing cannot exceed his ability to comprehend and to use spoken language. Tests of listening comprehension, therefore, give useful clues in estimating the levels at which students may be expected to read. In addition to standardized reading and listening tests, teachers need nonobjective tests for measuring subskills in reading and writing. When testing time is limited, the best rough measure of literacy is a test of written recall, which asks the student to study a short, well-organized expository passage and then to write all that he can remember of it. From this single test can be derived an idea of the student's ability to grasp and retain main ideas and details, to perceive the author's organization and to reproduce it, showing thereby his control of sentence structure, spelling, punctuation, usage, and vocabulary. Limited written recall is no proof that the student lacks reading skills, however. His comprehension may be excellent, but lack of ability in written expression may prevent him from proving it. He should be given a comparable passage to read and to recall orally.

The fact that success in reading is dependent upon oral language development may be as pertinent in junior high school as in primary grades, especially with students who speak a different dialect from standard English. In these situations, reading teachers familiarize students (through listening and speaking) with the language patterns of standard English as preparation for encountering these patterns in reading and using them in writing. How much time should be spent in oral language development before a full-scale program of reading instruction can be launched is dependent upon the distance of the students' dialect from standard English. Even in classes where speech does not differ greatly from the norm, teachers are finding that the study of oral and written language patterns makes students more aware of the process of reading by helping them to see how syntax relates ideas.

Studies have shown improvement in reading as a side effect of instruction in spelling, since practice in phonetic and structural analysis and in using the dictionary serves both reading and spelling. Certainly analysis of subskills in spelling, followed by attention to such matters as visual memory, sound-letter relationships, syllabication, and study of homophones, makes more sense than drill on "grade-level" spelling lists. Words for spelling practice should be derived from students' writing, not their reading. Except for the special use of spelling in the Fernald technique for remedial readers, we question the common practice of requiring students to learn the spelling of all new words presented in a directed reading lesson.

By the seventh grade, most students' reading vocabularies exceed their speaking, writing, and listening vocabularies. Provided they make good use of word analysis skills, context, and the dictionary, junior high students can read words they have not heard pronounced. As teachers, we encourage students to use words from their reading, or recognition, vocabulary in speaking and writing. Sometimes we are over zealous. At all levels of literacy, the dimensions of an individual's writing vocabulary are narrower than his reading vocabulary. The fact that we recognize words in reading long before we can use them in writing should influence our methods.

Accordingly, in teaching the vocabulary of a specific reading selection, we differentiate between those words which students may reasonably use in their own writing and those which are likely to remain for some time in their passive vocabulary. We avoid assignments which trap students into misusing words. We allow for many encounters with a word before expecting it to appear in a student's writing, since he probably cannot use a word accurately until the idea it stands for is familiar to him. For those words we select as likely to be immediately useful in a student's writing, we provide carefully graduated exercises before asking him to use it on his own.

The imperfect relationships among language skills warn teachers to pay sufficient attention to each. As reading skills improve, for example, listening skills often deteriorate. Good readers may be relatively poor speakers and writers. Without conscious attention to each of the four major language skills, students may not make useful transfers from one to the others. The cluster of skills sometimes labeled "organizational" provides a vehicle for emphasizing transfer. Thus, we teach students to perceive patterns of organization in reading and show them how to use these patterns in their own writing. Studying main ideas in paragraphs is an excellent basis for teaching the topic sentence, or controlling idea, as a tool for composition. Outlining another's ideas demonstrates the usefulness of planning before writing.

Indeed, the trend toward teaching reading and writing as two sides of the same coin has become so strong in recent years that it threatens to overshadow the equally important skills of listening and speaking. To correct this imbalance, teachers should (among other efforts) extend the application of organizational skills to listening for the structure of a speaker's explanation or argument, for example, and to organizing ideas into an outline for an oral report.

Following professional patterns has become a popular technique in teaching composition. One form this exercise takes is to have a student restore deleted words or phrases and then compare the original writer's way of expressing ideas with his own. Such an exercise has most value perhaps for students with a serious interest in improving style. For students who are not so highly motivated, simpler variations on this exercise can help them to master language patterns.

This technique for composition is not unlike the "cloze" technique developed by reading teachers for a different purpose—testing and teaching comprehension. "Cloze" appears to be a new label for the old idea of teaching the values of context in identifying unknown words. However, it is more than a vocabulary exercise, since the deletion of words in a consistent and arbitrary pattern forces attention to the function of common words.

Another example of a technique which serves reading and writing (as well as speaking and listening) involves the use of the Lasswell Formula. Reading teachers have borrowed this formula from a communications model to use it in teaching critical reading. Thus, they teach readers to query: Who/Said What/To Whom/Through What Channel/With What Effect? Turning the formula towards the student as writer instead of reader, we remind him of the importance of "voice" or point of view (who) and of audience (to whom). As a writer he controls the "channel" through his choice of words and compositional structure. Finally, he decides whether or not he has realized his purpose by testing "with what effect" on a real audience.

For many years now, reading specialists have urged the "language arts approach" to teaching reading as the most economical way of capitalizing on the interrelatedness of skills. If this approach were taken in the junior high school, the need for special reading classes would be open to question. The growth of special developmental reading classes suggests that integrated language arts programs have failed, in practice, to give sufficient emphasis to reading and study skills. Yet, the theory is so reasonable that the challenge to the junior high school now is clear: to develop every teacher as a teacher, not of reading alone, but of language skills.

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2. The Reading Specialist in the Junior High School

Jo Stanchfield

Modern life is characterized by the intelligent use of knowledge and the rewarding use of leisure time, neither of which is possible without the full utilization of reading skills. Our most precious human treasures, of heritage and of imagination, are to be discovered on the written page. Through his ability to read maturely, every youth should have the right to partake of these treasures of the past and present and to unlock those of the future.

Need for the Reading Specialist

Reading authorities recognize that learning to read is a continuous, complex, developmental process, requiring the sequential refinement of skills at various levels of difficulty. No longer can reading be considered the mere pronunciation of words, nor even the simple understanding of the meanings of the words. To function effectively in the complex society in which we live, the reader must be able to appreciate the implications of the meanings gained from the printed word with all its ramifications.

For too long reading has been thought of as a basic skill to be taught in the elementary school, with the idea that once a student has learned the basic essentials he can advance completely on his own. Gradually, authorities in secondary education are coming to the conclusion that reading is not to be considered a separate skill to be learned in the elementary school, but rather that reading is a skill which must be studied and taught throughout a student's school life and even into adulthood.

Organizational Patterns for the Reading Specialist

From observation and study of four large school systems in Southern California, the writer finds that three basic organizational structures emerge, although there is much overlapping of function within the patterns. The most common organization is that of the reading specialist or consultant functioning as a reading teacher in a classroom. The classes taught are usually listed under the English department and give partial credit toward completion of units in English.)

A second pattern for reading instruction is that of the "reading laboratory" or "reading center." This consists of a special room with mechanical equipment in addition to the textbooks mentioned above.)

A third pattern consists of a program in which the reading specialist works more or less in an advisory capacity to the regular classroom teacher. His role is that of giving counsel, guidance, and help with the diagnosis and correction of cases) of reading disability.

In the organization of the reading programs in the junior high school, three types of classes are developed, each according to the varying needs of the students: "Basic Reading," "Reading Improvement," and "Power Reading." In some plans, the first two classes are grouped together under the name of "Remedial Reading" or "Corrective Reading"; the third class is also referred to as "Developmental Reading."

The "Basic Reading" classes are designed for those students who are three or more years retarded in reading ability, as well as for non-readers. The students must have an average IQ as determined by an individual test, and the class size is restricted to approximately fifteen. The work is highly individualized and is centered around oral conversation, vocabulary development, listening skills, and all areas of reading readiness.

"Reading Improvement" classes are designed for students of average or above-average intelligence who are from one to two years retarded in reading. Class size is limited to approximately twenty pupils.

"Power Reading" classes (also called developmental and study skills) are planned for pupils of above-average ability who are reading at or above their grade level and who wish to improve their skills of comprehension, critical thinking, retention, and speed.

Varied Functions of the Reading Specialist

The person in charge of the reading program in the junior high school is, in effect, a specialist not only in the educational sense, but in the legal sense as well. That is, he is recognized by the board of education as one who has received special training and is doing work beyond the scope of the regular classroom teacher. To assure this recognition, some states, such as New York, have created a special credential for reading specialists. Because of a change in the credential structure in California, with a drastic reduction of the number of credentials, it is the responsibility of the hiring boards to select reading personnel with appropriate college preparation in reading.

The varied functions of the reading specialist stem from his responsibility not only to improve instruction in reading but also, on the basis of evaluative surveys, to develop new and better programs. In this latter area, he needs continuously to channel information to those in charge of educational policy, including the school principal, the superintendent of schools, and the board of education.

The reading specialist or consultant works with the classroom teacher in a variety of ways, depending on the teacher's college preparation in the teaching of reading, his experience, the quality of his teaching, his attitude toward change, and his receptivity to suggestions. The reading specialist develops pre-service workshops and conferences (preparatory to the classroom teacher's assuming a role in the reading improvement program), demonstrations with conferences beforehand and follow-up lessons afterwards, and regularly scheduled meetings and courses. Demonstrations for college and university teacher-training classes and the supervision of student teachers are also important contributions.

Counseling individual students and parents is another one of the varied functions of the reading specialist. Students must be helped to understand their problems and be shown ways in which they can help themselves improve their reading ability, both in and out of school. Parents need information about what the school is doing to help their son or daughter improve in reading and insight into what they can do to help.

Future Role of the Reading Specialist

In the curriculum of the secondary school, the position of the reading specialist is a relatively new one. To enable the reading specialist to function at maximum efficiency in a rapidly changing society, continuous investigations and studies should be pursued in such areas as the following: teaching norms for reading classes; motivation of interest on the part of teachers in the program; intensifying incentives for the students; development of reading centers or laboratories; selective classroom book collections for independent guided reading; use of audio-visual materials; selection of professional materials for teacher workshops; use of outstanding resource people in the field of reading for in-service purposes; work with colleges and universities for better pre-service preparation of secondary teachers in the understanding of the reading process.

With the need for increased education to compete effectively in our highly technological and complex culture and with the tragic consequences of the high school drop-out and the jobless youth, it would seem that the role of the reading specialist in the junior high school should be greatly expanded and strengthened.

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B. JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

1. Grouping Guidelines

D. A. Briggs

It would be rare indeed to enter an elementary school at random and not find within this school some type of grouping being done within each of the separate classrooms. Most frequently the reading lesson is taught to various groups of children, with separate and distinct materials for each group. Frequently the number of groups will be three, even if this number is too few or too many. Frequently there is some type of co-basal or tri-basal approach to reading, with the teacher dividing her time as best she can among the three groups.

In the junior high school the visitor would expect to see a departmentalized program with some type of homogeneous grouping operating within each separate grade level. Major subjects would be taught by different individuals and the children would most likely travel from room to room on a set schedule. If the visitor were in a rare school he might expect to see instruction being done on a block-of-time basis. Homogeneous grouping may or may not be a part of block-of-time instruction. Where block-of-time programs are in operation there is usually some place given to "reading" or "language arts." This time may be isolated or it may be in conjunction with English or social studies. Grouping for instruction becomes the province of the regular subject matter teachers.

All of the children cannot be taught from the same book. Likewise they cannot be successfully instructed by giving them a basal reader designed for junior high school use and having them read it as if it was a literature book. The children cannot be taught to improve their reading skills by reading this book at home and/or in their study halls. The presentation of the reading skills must be made in the same manner for these children as you would expect to see it made for children in the intermediate grades.

Grouping Principles

There are four basic principles of grouping which must be considered in the establishment of a program which will meet the needs of all the children in any single ungrouped junior high school class.

1. *Flexibility in Grouping*

The first of these grouping prerequisites is that of flexibility. This means that there must be an opportunity for free movement of the children not only upward into a higher reading group, but downward into a lower group. In order to assure flexibility of movement the teacher must realize that certain students are capable of making progress at different rates of speed. Some will move rapidly within their groups and others will move more slowly. Original groupings which are adequate at the outset of the program may soon prove inadequate and outdated as skills are learned and progress is made in the assigned reading materials. Flexibility also means that in teaching specific skills it is not uncommon to find certain children excelling in some areas while they are poorer overall in others. It follows then that there must be some procedure established for having students work in different reading groups if different skills are being taught.

2. *Realism in Grouping*

The second basic principle to observe in grouping for reading instruction is that the groups must be realistic. They must be realistic not only for the teacher but also for the children. Many teachers recognize the fact that three is by no means a magic number for grouping purposes. Within the normal class situation where a teacher is called upon to deal with approximately thirty children at a time, three arbitrarily designated groups usually make the situation workable. In a heterogeneously selected class fewer than three groups will generally not lead to successful instruction of all the children. The establishment of more than three groups will usually decrease the overall time a teacher can spend with each student in his group and also make the control and basic planning more complex. Undoubtedly there will be students in the class who are either too poor or too good to be with one of the regularly established groups. In this situation there may be brought into play such devices as tutorial parings, partner groupings, or individual research grouping.

3. *Knowledge in Grouping*

The third underlying prerequisite is that of knowledge of achievement level. The teacher must know her groups and students, and the children must know where they are and what they are doing in relationship to the total group. The parents of these students should also have the same basic information. The most effective instruction in the junior high school may be achieved only if the children and their parents realize where they are, what they are doing, and where they are going. It is imperative that children be accurately informed by their teachers as to their reading ability and their relationship to their peers. This information need not be presented in a blunt, matter-of-fact form. It can be discussed intelligently and with honest appraisal given by the teacher.

4. *Purposes in Grouping*

This last basic premise for grouping is that the groups be purposefully arranged. At the very base of grouping we find differentiated instruction as the underlying reason for the group. If no differentiated instruction or skill presentation is done, the groups have no purpose and therefore have no reason to exist. Putting all the junior high students into different groups at each grade level and then utilizing the same reading textbook with these students but at different rates of speed will accomplish nothing by way of results. If the students are not reading at the precise level of the books chosen, it is impossible for them to be instructed, no matter how carefully and painstakingly the presentation is made.

The problem of teaching the junior high school student to be an effective reader is a major one. It is probably the most complex task facing the teacher, and probably the one which teachers are least prepared and least comfortable in doing. Grouping children according to their individual abilities is one possible answer to the problem. It remains for us to find a better one.

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C. JUNIOR HIGH LEVEL

1. Applying Clinical Practices to Individualizing the Junior High School Reading Program

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A GARDNER tends his plants with love and care supplementing the environment of the plant so that nature can perform her natural function of growth and development. A wise gardner with a very green thumb has patience with "Mother Nature" knowing full well that he cannot accelerate the development without risking the possible mutation of his plant.

A parent, a teacher, and other adults with whom the young child is placed must cultivate the patience of the gardner and trust in the developmental process, being content to supplement and cultivate the environment, not the child.

When the gardner detects imperfect plants in his beds he knows that the cause may lie in the environment of the plant; poor soil conditions, poor water, unsatisfactory weather conditions, insects, or it may be an inherent condition of the plant itself, a casualty of nature.

When the teacher detects a pupil not responding properly to the stimuli of his environment he should initiate an investigation similar to that of the gardner.

In general, a reading difficulty is that point in learning to read at which no further attainment of an aim can be achieved effectively, if at all, without an adjustment on the part of the learner. Sometimes the adjustment is so difficult to make that progress is impeded considerably; at another time, the correct adjustment cannot be made; and, still again a wrong adjustment may be made. That which interferes with, or hampers, or halts progress is a difficulty.

Before junior high schools came upon the scene, reading was included in the curriculum of all seventh and eighth graders. After the combination of grades were organized into the secondary pattern, it was postulated that reading was not necessary and that whatever reading skills were taught in the first six grades would be sufficient. Obviously, this assumption was incorrect; we found that it is not only essential to teach reading at the junior high level, but that it should be an integral part of the senior high school curriculum, and that there may be a need for it at the college level.

The teaching of reading is essential in junior high school and it must include remedial, corrective and developmental reading. The teaching of reading is also the responsibility of every teacher, regardless of special content area or assigned duty.

Analyzing Reading Disabilities

Data from many sources should be used as a basis for a reading analysis: physical examinations, tests of vision and hearing, standardized test scores, personal history data, and careful observations of pupil performance during an extended lesson involving reading. The results obtained from intelligence tests are very helpful; however, it is important to know whether the retardation in reading is part of a general mental retardation or whether it is the result of other factors.

In conceptualizing a reading problem, standardized tests will provide only a beginning for analyzing the reading problem. They reveal a reading grade level score without disclosing the cause of the reading disability. A reading problem should be assessed with respect to two factors: (a) the quality of understanding which the child reveals and (b) the degree of competency with which he handles word recognition.

A reading problem should be described in terms of the relative degrees of discrepancy which exists between the adequacy of the understandings and the complexity of the recognition vocabulary. The greater the discrepancy, the greater the reading handicap.

Certainly the biggest task, and incidentally the most difficult one, is to provide each pupil with an understanding of how to seek pleasure and satisfaction in reading, to gain confidence in himself so that he will eventually become a "reader" rather than "one who can read."

When a teacher has completed an analysis, and this may take several days of individual conferences, a written report should be sent to the parents and to the teachers in a position to assist the child. The causes of the reading disability should be explained and in addition a descriptive program should be included which the teacher may use with the child, and possible suggestions for the parents.

The data which the teacher gathers should contain two facets: (1) for the teacher himself the meaning of the evidence gathered, and (2) the ability of the teacher to describe this meaning to other teachers, parents and even to the youngster.

Teachers must move away from the sophistication of the clinical interpretation of reading analysis. Let us not become so obsessed with "pathological vocabulary" that we lose perspective and become lost in our true endeavor, that of giving the child the opportunity to find himself in reading. For example, do not write:

> This child suffers from strephosymbolia. This is the result of having monocular vision compounded by confused laterality. It is suggested that he be given the kinesthetic treatment and efforts be made to change his mixed dominance to right cerebral dominance.

This highly technical language will fail to convey meaning and make all other teachers and parents alike feel completely helpless.

Since the written report of the analysis is to be used as a means of communication between the reading teacher and others it should be in a language understandable by all.

Principles of Clinical Skill Development through Individualized Instruction

It is conceivable that if rigid drills are imposed upon the students they can and will set up negative attitudes toward the learning of the skills. All teachers know that it is important to develop skills; they should be, however, cognizant of the fact that skills with this age child must not be focused upon in such ways that the drill results in continued dislike or active resistance to reading. Such rigid drill in reading techniques and skills does not insure improvement of reading.

Teachers must realize that regardless of how desperately they try, they really never teach a child anything. The most they can do is to create good learning conditions.

The development of a skill is not for a probable future use, but to solve an immediate and specific problem in reading. The relationship between a certain skill and actual reading is not meaningful unless the pupil sees most clearly the need for it. Not all skills are needed by youngsters in junior high school. Teaching to weaknesses implies that only those skills basic for immediate survival are essential. This is illustrated by the use of the following formula:

$$RC = CRS + PRS + PRS$$

Reading Components equals *Crucial Reading Skills* plus *Probable Reading Skills* plus *Possible Reading Skills*. In essence the total reading program is made up first of those skills which are crucial for immediate survival; second, those skills which the student will probably need; and third, those that he may possibly use.

Students of junior high school age are constantly seeking independence. Isn't it only natural that the most understanding principle would be that of recognizing independence? This factor alone increases the student's assets, interests, and attitudes.

Because of the one-to-one relationship, students understand their role and ability, and the teacher's responsibility in the reading class. The student may gain insight through talking, utilizing the conference as a therapeutic process.

Eagerness to be a better reader always predicates itself upon new interests. Interests will help memory and recall, understanding and comprehension; and evokes effort and action toward further interests.

No one principle of teaching is used separately; all principles should be applied if needed. At all times a teacher must be thinking about what should be learned and how it can best be learned.

Special Difficulties

While diagnosis is commonly thought of in connection with reading difficulties, let us also not forget the effect upon learning subjects and the special consideration which should be given to general causes which might lie behind special or specific subject difficulties. I refer primarily to emotional disturbances.

Adolescents have their emotional strains just as do adults; the causes may be different, but the effects are the same. Causes are due to failures, fear of teachers, dread of criticism, dislike for subjects, anxiety over grades, discouragement in social relationships, shame over family troubles, and sorrow over bitter experiences. Some young persons are shy and bashful; others are afraid of the opposite sex; and still others are timid and receding. These and other causes of emotional disturbances make effort difficult, sometimes impossible. In fact, continued disturbances interfere seriously with health, happiness, and satisfactory progress.

Teachers can gain much information about students by observing their responses and especially those reactions which are difficult to discover by the methods of analysis thus far mentioned. Industry, perseverance, thoroughness, interest, politeness, honesty, speech defects, study habits, judgment, and personal characteristics can be observed directly or indirectly. Inattention and lack of perseverance are as likely to interfere with achievement as are faulty mental processes and lack of experiences. Emotional and social mal-adjustments can be quite accurately analyzed at times by observing the symptoms of these disturbances. To a keen observer, no pupil reactions escape, whether they be oral, written, or gesture.

Evaluation of Individualized Reading Instruction with Clinical Application

It is quite logical to conclude that teaching reading by means of individualized procedure does provide for self-direction upon the part of students. Probably the greatest contribution inherent in the plan is the idea of planning a program so that pupils can, by following a self-directive pattern, work at their own rate until certain prescribed goals have been reached. If an aim of junior high school education is to develop the ability to study independently, then it stands to reason that study must include the ability to discriminate, to evaluate, to organize, to consult sources of information, to weigh the evidence, to verify, and to come to some solid conclusions. All this is based upon the feeling and attitude that this is good and a certain satisfaction and joy is always derived.

An understanding of adolescents and possessing insight into their behavior, feelings, and goals is the integral part of such instruction. No teacher can use the clinical approach or apply clinical practices without understanding adolescents.

The socio-psychological approach is the best method of studying adolescents because it considers all the forces that influence the individual on his road to maturity. It gives a complete developmental picture of parent-child relationships; it considers the adolescent's role in the family; it emphasizes the totality of the adolescent's experience, and considers each incident as having a dynamic relation to the total personality and its effect upon the present problem.

Summary

The above provisions of applying individualized reading practices in clinical situations have been presented in an atomized fashion. A coordination will reveal the use of all the fundamental principles of individualized reading.

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b. Evaluating Pupil Team Learning in Intermediate Grades

DONALD D. DURRELL

This is a report of "pupil team" learning as a method of providing for individual differences among children in intermediate grades. During the year 1958-59, under a U. S. Office of Education contract, forty-seven intermediate grade teachers in eight elementary schools of Dedham, Massachusetts. utilized pupil team instruction as a major method in their classrooms. In order to discover whether the program produced gains in pupil achievement, standard tests were given in all subjects in June 1958, prior to the experimental year, and these were compared with the results of tests in June 1959, following the experimental year.

Pupil team learning should be based upon the principle of adjusting group size and make-up to the highest economy of learning. The nature of the learning task determines the size of the group, and whether or not it includes pupils of like or unlike abilities. While we do not yet know the optimum group size and make-up for different learning tasks, in the Dedham study we depended upon previous experiments and upon theory—or best guess—as to the formation and use of our pupil teams. The decisions made may best be illustrated by our use of team learning in different subjects.

Arithmetic always seems to work well through a "team progress" method. Pupils were divided into teams of three on the basis of arithmetic ability, with some regard for congeniality. Daily assignments were indicated by a mimeographed guide, with tests interspersed at intervals to determine individual mastery. Members of the team worked together on the problems, comparing answers and assisting each other with corrections and explanations. Superior learners moved rapidly; as they completed the work of the textbook for the grade, they moved to that of the next grade. One-third of all pupils finished the arithmetic for two grades during the year. When it was apparent that slower pupils needed more teacher direction, the program was modified for them in this fashion: new processes were introduced by the teacher, then pupil teams worked together until they completed the lessons related to the process. Those who completed the work earlier than the time for presentation of the next step, utilized the free time to work on specialties in other subjects. Very slow pupils in arithmetic required more teacher direction, but the teacher time for remedial work was available, since other pupils were at work in teams and required little aid.

Spelling was handled in a manner similar to that of arithmetic. Teams of two or three pupils were formed on the basis of spelling ability. The test-correction method was followed, with pupils studying the words, dictating to each other, correcting errors, then writing words from dictation again if errors were frequent. Persistent errors were placed in personal spelling lists. Superior spellers moved through the work of the year rapidly. They did not then go on to the spellers of the next grade, but were required to keep personal spelling lists of words which were new and useful to them. These lists served as occasional "brush-up" lessons. Pupils who were very poor in spelling were usually under the direction of the teacher. They were given shorter lists, easier words, and were aided in syllabication, visual memory, and word usage.

The program began with arithmetic and spelling because we had more experience with these subjects and knew that the methods would be readily accepted by pupils and teachers. Although both subjects might have profited by more enrichment and applications, the major factors of differences in level and learning rates were cared for by this method. The self-directing, self-correcting features of the work for more capable pupils freed the teacher for remedial work with slower learners. Of course there were a number of "ground rules" and record forms necessary to make the team progress methods work smoothly.

When we approached history and geography, which were taught as separate subjects in this school system, we were forced to improvise many types of services. Teachers do not change readily from uniform instruction in which reading of textbooks is followed by class recitation or written work. General advice, even when illustrated by demonstrations in regular classrooms, does not move quickly into practice.

The major services in history and geography were the following: (1) study guides consisting of questions to answer while studying, used by partners; (2) various types of team "recitation" or discussion, with a pupil secretary recording answers of teams of three to five pupils; (3) curriculum-related pupil "specialties," assigned in advance to individual pupils or teams. Where the reading ability of pupils was adequate to the textbook, teams of pupils used study guides prepared by committees of teachers under the guidance of members of the research team. Ideally, these guides should differ in complexity of mental task in relation to the abilities of the pupils. However, it must be admitted that the guides were often largely factual and did not show the variation desired. When the reading ability of pupils was much too low for the textbook, the presentation was often made orally by the teacher.

When all pupils have access to the same information, through reading, listening, or other forms of mass presentation, recitation or discussion teams may be made up of pupils of unequal ability. Teams of three to five pupils work well, with one serving as secretary to record the answers of the group. After teams have completed their answers, the secretary may read the group answer, while other teams check their lists to find additional possible answers. We found that specific written tasks were necessary to keep group discussion well disciplined. Also, it is desirable that the teacher collect group answers in order to give them importance. Teams of three work better when the questions to be answered are largely factual; teams of five are more effective when elaborative or critical thinking is required.

In social studies and science, all pupils followed the course of study at the same pace; there was no attempt to provide for differences in learning rate. Greater depth and breadth came from curriculum-related specialties in history, geography, science, and literature. These specialties were generally limited to the top half of the pupils, although some teachers found ways to include all pupils in the specialties program. Textbooks were searched for areas of knowledge which might be enriched through special reports. These were assigned well in advance of their presentation, and assistance was given by teachers, librarians, parents, and neighbors. Reports of specialties always required unveiling a display of pictures, objects, maps, or charts; oral presentation was usually limited to ten minutes. Pupil specialties were a major part of the program; their importance is indicated by the town librarian's report of the doubling of circulation of library books at this grade level.

The many different types of abilities in language arts required a variety of team approaches. Language-grammar exercises were "packaged" and learned in team progress methods. Creative writing often required a variety of groupings. The writing situation or problem was presented by the teacher to the whole class, using many types of situations to evoke imagination. Teams of five children of unequal ability discussed possible approaches to the task. Each child wrote his composition alone, using or varying the ideas suggested in group discussion. After writing, proofreading was done by pairs of pupils who exchanged papers and discussed corrections. Then children read stories to each other in teams of three, selecting superior papers for class presentation. While this complexity of grouping and regrouping was not always followed, the team planning of compositions was a regular feature of creative writing.

The reading program consisted more of enrichment than of special skills development. We hoped that improvement of reading comprehension, recall, and study abilities would result from the team study techniques in the content subjects. We also expected that the independent reading specialties in history, geography, science, and literature would aid general reading achievement. The basal readers were replaced two or three days a week with play reading, choral reading, listening, or independent reading. Superior readers dispatched the reading textbooks early in the year through reacting to team assignments in relation to the stories. Average readers used the reading textbooks two or three days a week, with three-man team responses following the lessons. Slow readers were moved to textbooks suitable to their levels, and were under teacher direction much of the time. Although there was some attempt at intensive work in special reading skills development, the only generally used material was sets of word analysis practice cards, requiring response to meaning after analysis. These had been experimentally evaluated previously and had proved effective in improving both word analysis and spelling.[1]

In evaluating such a general program, there are far more variables than one would wish. It is impossible to assign gains or losses to any particular procedure when so many are introduced simultaneously. The stimulating effect of a new and ambitious program, the attendant publicity, the constant presence of the research team, and the knowledge of later evaluation may account for any gains. The experimental nature of the program, the variety of approaches, and the attempt to reach so many objectives may result in confusion of teachers and pupils, with attendant losses in achievement. Just which activities encouraged growth or which impeded it, is impossible to discover from this study. The most serious handicap to evaluation was the lack of objective measures for many of the implied values in the program.

However, the amount of damage done, or the general gains and losses in achievement may be roughly assessed by the Metropolitan Achievement Test scores of the pupils for the year prior to and following the experimental program. Comparisons are limited to pupils of teachers who taught both years. There were twelve fourth grades, nine fifth grades, and fourteen sixth grades which satisfied this condition.

The following tables indicate the results. To begin with the happier findings, here are the comparisons for 1958 pupils and 1959 (experimental) pupils of fourteen sixth grade classrooms :

Fourteen Sixth Grade Classrooms

Mean Grade Scores

	1958	1959	Difference
Arithmetic			
Computation	7.5	7.6	.1
Problems	7.9	8.7	.8*
Spelling	7.1	7.4	.3†
Reading	7.4	8.2	.8*
Literature	7.6	8.6	1.0*
History	7.9	7.9	.0
Geography	8.3	9.1	.8†
Science	7.6	8.1	.5†
Average			
Achievement	7.6	8.2	.6*

* Significant at 1 percent level.
† Significant at 5 percent level.

Improvement in achievements through the experimental program among nine fifth grades is shown in the following table:

Nine Fifth Grades

Mean Grade Scores

	1958	1959	Difference
Arithmetic			
Computation	6.5	6.8	.3*
Problems	6.7	7.5	.8*
Spelling	6.4	6.8	.4*
Reading	6.7	6.8	.1
Literature	6.3	7.0	.7*
History	7.0	6.8	—.2
Geography	6.4	6.9	.5†
Science	6.7	7.1	.4
Average			
Achievement	6.6	7.0	.4*

The program in the twelve fourth grades resulted in gains only in spelling; there were slight losses in arithmetic and reading. The Metropolitan Achievement Tests provided no measures of other subjects at fourth grade level.

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[1] Donald D. Durrell and Doris U. Spencer, "Word Analysis Through Inductive Techniques," *Educational Leadership*, 17; May, 1960, pp. 523-26.

Twelve Fourth Grades

Mean Grade Scores

	1958	1959	Difference
Arithmetic			
Computation	5.5	5.4	—.1
Problems	5.6	5.6	.0
Spelling	5.6	6.3	.6*
Reading	5.8	5.7	—.1
Average Achievement	5.7	5.8	.1

At the outset of the study, we hoped for improvement in achievement in all subjects at all grade levels. Rapid and slow learners were expected to show more improvement than average achievers, since it was assumed that uniform instruction was better adapted to average pupils. It seemed that boys might show unusual gains in a program which called for more pupil activity and responsibility. It was also expected that there would be greater interest in school subjects, and improvement in the social climate of the classrooms.

Average achievement improved significantly in grades five and six, but showed no gain in grade four. Analysis of data by intelligence levels showed that bright pupils made statistically significant improvement over the control year in grades five and six, but not in grade four. Achievements of slow learners improved in all grades. The middle group of children made significant improvement in grades five and six, but had slight losses in grade four. Boys improved more than did girls in all subjects in grades four and five, but the reverse was true in grade six. There were no statistically significant changes in social-personal measures except in grade five, where interest in school subjects improved significantly.

The values of pupil teams in specific aspects of learning in various subjects awaits more carefully controlled studies, in which the team situation is the single variable. There must be many situations in which the amount and quality of learning is enhanced by combining pupils into teams of varying sizes. All studies show that children enjoy working in teams more than working alone; if team learning also produces higher achievement, it should be more widely used in classrooms.

A more complete account of this study is found in:

Donald D. Durrell, and others. "Adapting Instruction to the Learning Needs of Children in Intermediate Grades." *Journal of Education* 142:1-78, December, 1959.

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2. Individualizing Instruction in Classroom Corrective Situations

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How Significant Adults Feel Makes a Difference

IN ORDER FOR us to talk about individualizing instruction we need to examine our feelings about individual differences. Researchers tell us that educators do not yet adequately *understand, value,* or *use* the uniqueness of individuals. We *talk* about individual differences as though we accept them; then we act as though they were unfortunate. We aren't going to make many adjustments to take care of individual differences until we change how we feel about differences.

It is time that we acted upon our knowledge that how a person feels about himself is more important than what he knows. What a child thinks of himself, his openness to experiences, his store of concepts, his way of organizing his understandings, his habit of testing reality, and his acceptance of his own feelings are all an outgrowth of his interactions with people and things. We know with surety that a poor self-concept inhibits the basic process of learning.

Empirical evidence is mounting that when the significant adults in a child's life think he *can do* . . . can achieve . . . he is better able to perform. An accumulation of evidence from last summer's Headstart Program supports the belief that when the teacher thought the children could perform a multitude of tasks, the children did. When the teacher thought the children could not, they did not. The ability of the children was not correlated with their performances but with the opinion and attitudes of their teachers. Students sense easily how adults feel about them and their capabilities, and it makes a difference. Marie Hughes *(1)* tells us that even laboratory animals perform mazes better when their researchers think their animals are bright; that is, the rats of researchers who had been told their rats were "stupid" made significantly inferior test runs on the mazes.

Individual differences make work for us and we show it. We don't make adjustments in the curriculum for differences in cognitive styles. For instance, the child whose cognitive style is not compatible with the basal-reader approach in most situations must be taught to read outside of the classroom, often in a corrective situation years later.

Acceptance

If prevention rather than correction or remediation is ever to become a reality, children must be accepted as they are. Acceptance is not easy to give if one has not had much acceptance oneself. However, adults can change and become more tolerant and accepting.

The more accepting one is of oneself, the more freely aware one is of the behavior of others. All classroom teachers need to be aware of the symptoms that children constantly exhibit which signal a need for help. Only as a teacher understands the signals does she become more diagnostic. Both verbal and non-verbal behavior communicate much valuable information to the teacher who can interpret it.

Stress

A checklist of potentially troublesome symptoms to aid an observant classroom teacher can easily be compiled. Many of these symptoms are signs of stress. People (of all ages) under stress see less; they hear less; they observe less; they think less; and they are generally less effective than their counterparts who feel comfortable about themselves.

As teachers become more diagnostic in their work with all children, they become aware that all mistakes have meaning. There is no such thing as a meaningless mistake. The classroom should be the safest place in the world to make a mistake. Observant teachers value every mistake because mistakes assist in pinpointing corrective assistance. Fortunately, when help is given to improve learning, it also acts to relieve tension. Conversely, when tension is relieved, the learning possibilities improve.

Correction in the Classroom

The difficulty of attempting correction in a classroom situation is most often found in the range of difficulties of the students. The smaller the class the greater is the possibility of individual attention. Some of the successful ground-rules which have enabled teachers to handle classroom corrective situations are as follows:

1. Grouping
   Grouping according to instructional needs is essential and implies constant evaluation.
2. Student aids
   The use of student aids will multiply the one-to-one contacts that are possible in a single class period. Learning teams of two and three are often profitably set up for a definite assignment or period of time.
3. Materials
   A wide variety of materials on different levels should be available both for formal presentation and independent browsing. Effort should be made to concentrate on easy books which appeal to boys.
4. Begin instruction low enough
   Teachers often find it necessary to go back to first-grade work in order to fill in gaps which are causing difficulties at the tenth-grade level. If the tenth grader cannot remember how to make a "j" or a "g," this lack is an obvious gap. It is wise to watch the way children make their letters in a writing situation so that the method can be appraised as well as the end result.
5. Use language-arts approach
   Listening, speaking, reading, and writing all reenforce one another;

and as one area improves, carry-over to the other areas should be stressed.

6. Use Self-Checking Devices
   The use of self-checking devices which enable the student to know immediately whether he is right have immense value in corrective-reading situations.
7. Test-Teach-Retest
   Time is precious in a corrective situation and we cannot afford to waste time teaching what is already known. Testing first facilitates instructional planning and avoids boredom. Many informal tests given before planning the next day's lesson will pay big dividends.
8. Allow crutches
   If the students are still relying on immature habits such as vocalizing or pointing, it is best to refer the students for special evaluations. Ordinarily children do not use crutches longer than they need them. Depriving children of the crutches while they still need them is harsh. When the rights of others are considered, it is best to allow the use of crutches until a thorough diagnosis is made.
9. Pose good questions
   The quality of the questions the teachers ask often has a distinct effect upon the quality of the reading done by the students. Too many factual and detail questions lead students to read for facts and details. Teachers need to pose more "why?" and "how?" questions which cause a different level of thinking. The questions the teacher asks *after* the reading test comprehension, but the questions the teacher poses *before* the reading teach comprehension.
10. Follow interests of Students
    Children are naturally interested in what affects them today. This interest should be capitalized on if the student is to become personally involved in learning.
11. Note successes
    Nothing succeeds like success! Some method of appraising small successes frequently should be established. Recordings of oral reading, more word cards in the shoe box, more vocabulary cards, fewer errors noted in oral reading, or comprehension checks can all serve to point up successes.
12. Vary the activities in a period
    In a fifty-minute period as many as four activities can be planned and executed. Structuring the hour so that students know exactly what to expect and what to do as soon as one activity is completed will give the students a measure of independence which they value.
13. Protect the ego of students
    How he feels is more important than what he knows. As he learns that someone cares, he will become freer to learn. Every human being has value and deserves respect. He will believe you if you feel it.

Summary

Secondary teachers are often leary of trying to individualize instruction because students often take advantage of freedom. If the teacher starts slowly, sets up rules and regulations which are tenable, and involves the students in the planning, individualizing will bring much satisfaction and more learning.

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1. Hughes, Marie M. *Learning and Mental Health in the School.* Washington: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1966, 133.

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4. Practical Individualization With Basal Materials

MARY RUTH LAUCK

THIS presentation will be composed of some classroom tested methods, procedures, and activities that promote and encourage practical individualization within the framework of basal reading materials.

Differentiating reading instruction in the elementary classroom is not new, but moving forward with the same educational philosophy and activating it in the secondary reading program is new to many schools.

The individualization which I shall share with you has been developed in the secondary reading program of the city schools of Reading, Pennsylvania.

Teacher Organization

The reading consultant is responsible for supplying the necessary instructional information which the seventh grade reading teacher will need. This information is gathered from the records of the child's past six years in elementary grades. These statistics must be arranged so that they are functional, simple, and understandable.

The data should include the latest information obtained from any standardized test of reading achievement and diagnostic information as well as terse comments about the child's reading performance in the elementary grades. What are his motivating interests? Does he have any physical or emotional handicaps that will need personal and instructional concern? What basal instructional materials have been used and with what degree of success? A form should be used which is of standard file size and should be kept in the reading classroom.

Study-Type Reading With Basic Textbooks from Major Content Areas

Begin instruction with a brief presentation to all students on exactly how to analyze the textbook and put to work all its built-in study helps. Teach a basic study procedure or formula and demonstrate its adaptability to any content area.

After the group presentation it is time to individualize. Have short interviews with the students to hear their side of study difficulty. At this time use a simple study checklist. Confer with individual subject area teachers to discover individual course requirements. This will help.

An analysis of performance in each subject area should follow immediately after each report period so that the child's effort and the teaching is constantly in tune with his academic needs.

Development of Versatility of Reading Rate

Basic principles of rate development should be taught to all readers: seeing words as thought units, setting objectives and purposes for which the knowledge gained will be used, discovering the author's plan of structure, and learning to shift gears to match the difficulty of the reading assignment.

Book Reporting and Reviewing

We have no better opportunity to practice and promote individuality than when conducting book reporting or book reaction classes. Impress upon students at the beginning of the instructional program how book reports should be made. Demand versatility and variability in making reports.

Teach and talk about books and reading in such a way as to encourage and produce creative and logical thinking. What emotional response did you experience? What better understanding of world and mankind is yours as a result of reading this book?

Oral Reading and Today's Readers

The great question still prevails: How much time and training should be devoted to oral reading? Belief in individualization makes the answer quick and easy. Oral reading enters a reading program as much as and to the degree that it will be beneficial to the child as he matures and finds his place in the living world. Any oral presentation is possible with a child, with any type of reading material, just as long as time has been given for adequate preparation.

Spelling and Word Study

Each child is taught from the beginning of the reading program that spelling, word study, and vocabulary growth are all important in developing reading competence and efficiency.

Students work in multi-level, individualized spelling laboratories as well as incidental spelling activities springing from other basic reading materials. They enjoy the word study provided in the educational edition of *The Reader's Digest.*

All spelling and word study is kept functional and provided in direct relationship to the reader's need.

Audio-Visual Aids

Learning is exciting, new, and different when the use of audio-visual aids is planned to individual needs, interests, and talents. This is the third dimension of individualization.

In the Reading School District, we are fortunate to be able to obtain many of our learning aids from the Reading Museum and Art Gallery which is operated by the local school district. Each teacher has a catalogue with a listing of films, filmstrips, recordings, displays, and various objects of art which he may order. Delivery comes to his classroom twice a week.

This type of approach is motivational to reading. It belongs in every reading program. It produces a new learner; it develops a reader alive with interest in himself, in others, and the very world in which he lives.

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3. Controversial Aspects of Individualized Reading

LILLIAN R. PUTNAM

AT THE OUTSET, I wish to state that I consider the advantages of individualized reading could outweigh the disadvantages. Although the professional literature abounds in prolific assertions of what such a program should do, several controversial aspects still remain. My comments are based on observations of classes and programs in progress—of what is actually happening—not of what is purported to happen. These criticisms can be divided into two categories: (1) those inherent in the plan itself, which I believe stand a minimal chance of improvement, and (2) those functioning now, which could be corrected.

In the first category I observe the following:

1. The time lapse between conferences

is too long. A child reads or "struggles" with his chosen selection until his teacher-conference. This may vary from two to five days; meanwhile he continues to make errors, usually without correction. In one class, a child read a story about an old man and a "termite" for four days. On the fifth day during his conference, he discovered the word was "turnip." No wonder he had missed the comprehension and humor. This type of incident is too commonly repeated and the criticism is intensified with "slower" children because they need more teacher help. However, schools operating on a daily reading-language arts bloc seem to experience fewer of these problems.

2. The need for a specific skill has passed before it is taught. It is only after the child has read the book, or a good portion of it, that the teacher discovers his need and teaches the skill. This, it seems to me, is the reverse of a good learning procedure.

3. Many advocates of individualized reading say, "Teach skills in groups if the need exists." The practical difficulty here is that the teacher frequently teaches one skill to four or five children before she realizes that it was a group need. This contradicts the most economical use of teacher time. Having the same class consecutively for two years tends to reduce the problem, but this situation is minimal in junior high.

4. Advocates of individualized reading state that a logical sequence of skills is taught. I see skills being taught, but I disagree that the sequence is logical. If a skill is taught when it is needed, as advocates claim, it can and frequently does violate the learning principle of proceeding from the simple to the complex. For example, a teacher taught a child how to syllabicate three syllable words because the need arose in his book. Weeks later she discovered he did not know prefixes, suffixes, compound words, nor had he been given any auditory training which would normally precede, in a logical sequence. One antidote for this criticism is to maintain a continual rating on an individual inventory of specific skills. This could be transferred with permanent records to each new teacher.

In the second category, I would place the following:

1. This plan places maximum demands upon teacher competency. To function adequately, teachers must know reading programs, not one grade alone, but complete programs from kindergarten to grade 12. They must know a logical progression of skills, and many ways of presenting them. They must be able to diagnose errors quickly, and have readily available, either commercially or personally prepared, exercises to give practice and to reinforce the skills taught. All of this must be at the teacher's finger-tips, available immediately during the conference as each need is evidenced.

In my extensive observations of classroom practices, I have seen only a minimal number of teachers who demonstrated adequate competence in these areas. The data of the "Harvard-Carnegie Report: The Torch Lighters," indicate reasons why this minimal competency exists.

This condition could be greatly alleviated by upgrading and intensifying required courses in the teaching of reading for all public school teachers, kindergarten through grade 12, especially for those teaching individualized reading.

2. Many administrators have initiated individualized reading without sufficient groundwork and preparation; frequently chaos and frustration result. A few quick seminars coupled with administrative edict and a desire to be on the frontier of "something new," do not insure the success of any program. Success can be insured by more careful preparation and spadework and by supplying practical professional in-service training in areas of record keeping, diagnosis of difficulties, and sequence of skills.

As stated previously, the advantages of an individualized reading plan could outweigh the disadvantages, but intrinsic controversial aspects still remain.

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B. JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

1. Evaluating Research on Individualized Reading

HARRY W. SARTAIN

IN A relatively good experiment Frederick R. Walker[1] assigned three equivalent heterogeneous classes of seventh grade pupils to three different instructional approaches for six weeks. The children in the first class were taught with varied materials suited in difficulty to the ability and the special difficulties of each individual. The second class used materials selected from the SRA Reading Laboratory to fit each child's reading level. Members of the third class, called the control group, all used the same basic seventh grade textbook and workbook with no supplementary reading materials provided; the author refers to this as a "conventional" approach.

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[1] Frederick R. Walker. "Evaluation of Three Methods of Teaching Reading, Seventh Grade." *Journal of Educational Research,* 54 (May, 1961), pp. 356-8.

Progress in comprehension and vocabulary was measured by using two forms of Triggs' Diagnostic Reading Tests. A t-test analysis of the data revealed no significant differences among the mean gains of the three classes. However, the lower halves of the first two classes made significant progress during the six weeks, while the lower half of the single textbook class did not. The author concludes that these results favor an individualized program.

Do they? The answer depends upon whether one means "individualized reading instruction," which is instruction differentiated in various ways, or "individualized reading," which is a specific method of teaching each child quite separately.[2]

Specific Method or General Principle?

Certainly this study supports several others which have proved conclusively that children make more progress when instruction is in some way differentiated to match varied growth levels, than they do when all pupils are expected to work at the same level.

When writers quote this study to support the individualized reading *method*, however, they reveal professional naiveté. The authors of all recognized basic programs recommend their materials be used for *differentiated* group instruction along with extensive supplementary reading. Because this control class used only one book in the so-called "conventional" approach, it provides no evidence whatever to be used in comparing the individualized method with the complete basic method.

Evaluating Research Reports

The fact that studies have been quoted to uphold views that they were not designed to support leads one to raise questions about research reports.

1. *Can quotations and short summaries of research reports be trusted?* By comparing summaries with original reports one can learn which writers are competent to summarize accurately. In a recent article a seventh grade vocabulary study by Eicholz and Barbe[3] was summarized as evidence in respect to individualized reading. Upon reading the report, one finds that the study was concerned entirely with the effect of practice on vocabulary development and could be related to individualized reading only through the gay gambols of a lively imagination.

Beware especially of the writer who obviously is trying to persuade you to adopt his point of view exclusively. In one article an individualized reading enthusiast has quoted a study that seems highly favorable to completely individualized reading, but has blithely omitted the original author's caution that considerably more time was spent in daily individualized reading instruction than in the program with which it was compared. This raises another question about reported research.

2. *Were the control conditions exactly equivalent to the experimental conditions except for the factor being studied?* In the study just mentioned, the difference in the instructional time periods clouds the conclusions; one does not know whether the differences in pupil progress were due to differences in instructional time or method.

A common control error in individualized reading studies is to provide experimental classes with hundreds of different books while limiting basic classes to one book for each reading group. This is one way in which an unscientific experimenter can stack the cards and be assured of the results in advance. If different results are obtained, one cannot judge whether the cause was methodology or variety and quantity of materials. For a better comparison, the basic groups should be given an equivalent collection of books for supplementary reading, as was done in Noall's experiment.[4]

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[2] Ruth Strang. "Controversial Programs and Procedures in Reading." *School Review*, 69 (Winter, 1961), pp. 413-28.

[3] Gerhard Eichols and Richard Barbe. "An Experiment in Vocabulary Development." *Educational Research Bulletin*, 40 (January, 1961), pp. 1-7, 28.

[4] Mabel Noall. "Automatic Teaching of Reading Skills in High School." *Journal of Education*, 143 (February, 1961), pp. 27-31.

3. *Did the novelty of the experimental situation affect the results?* Variety usually produces improvement in work. The novelty effect may be offset by employing the new procedure with both the experimental and control groups for a time before the pretests are given, or by making both the experimental and the control procedures different from previous work.

4. *Were the data adequate and accurate?* Tests must be valid, reliable, and uniformly administered in order to produce data that can be used in worthwhile research. Also, they should provide detailed information that will make possible the study of subtle, as well as obvious, factors in pupil progress.

5. *Were the data treated statistically to determine whether differences in achievement of experimental and control groups were great enough to be considered significant?* It is impossible to tell whether small differences in averages of raw test scores could have occurred by chance unless one uses a modern statistical method of analysis.

6. *Does the available evidence support the conclusions that are offered?* The strongly biased person is tempted to present conclusions that go beyond the scientific findings. Another mistake is that of assuming that similar basic results will be obtained in different situations.

As yet we do not have enough research to make definite conclusions about individualized reading in the junior high school. However, the carefully done studies in elementary classes, as well as Noall's interesting work with older students, suggest that both individualized reading and differentiated basic programs have values which should be considered by teachers.[5, 6]

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[5] Mabel Noall, *op. cit.*

[6] Harry W. Sartain. "Individualized Reading, An Annotated Bibliography." I.R.A., 1964.

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2. Effective Grouping in Junior High School

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Lee's Summit Board of Education

A STUDY OF grouping and grouping practices is a never ending, unsatisfying, often discouraging, and, at the same time, an intriguing study. Grouping of students for the best teaching-learning environment has elicited volumes from people in and out of the profession. With the exception of the past ten years, one finds a paucity of material on the subject. However, it was not always so. In the late 20's and 30's, grouping was a "hot" subject. Such names as Winnetka, Dalton, Platoon, Multi-Track, Departmental, Ungraded, Cooperative, Vestibule, Social Maturity Grade, Split-Grade, Advanced, Special Opportunity, XYZ, and other names are familiar to students of education.

Today, other names typifying some grouping plan hark back to some of the original ideas—some with a new twist, others pretty much the same but probably with new names such as Joplin, Trump, 3-Track, Gifted, Retarded, Slow Learner, etc.

Space limitations permit only a sketchy review of grouping, but there are some facts that need to be brought to bear on this discussion.

An idea in teaching that is not a new one and has probably had more lip service than any other single plan for teaching known is that of individual instruction. Any educator who could make such a plan work successfully would deserve the highest honor ever conferred upon a person in education. However, this idea is so good that every school needs to aim toward it because of all ideas that have been explored in the field of teaching and learning, this probably has more merit than any. In view of the fact that we have great numbers to educate and because the cost of one to one correspondence is impractical, we, in all probability, must resort to some kind of group teaching.

In any kind of an evaluative study, it stands to reason that we should begin with what we have. A number of agencies within our country have tried to determine what grouping practices are being used today. In one study, 1200 secondary schools were sent questionnaires listing 23 administrative techniques which principals could use to facilitate educational programs of rapid and slow learners. A total of 795 schools responded to the questionnaire. A quantitative appraisal of responses indicated that:

1. School staffs are aware of individual differences among students and are making many provisions to meet these differences.
2. Schools are making more administrative provisions for slow learners than for rapid learners.
3. In general, senior high schools are making the greatest number of adaptations, and junior high schools the fewest.
4. For most of the 23 provisions there is a direct relationship between the size of schools and the number of administrative provisions for rapid and slow learners.
5. Comparatively fewer schools are using homogeneous grouping than 20 years ago although one half of the schools in the study reported such grouping.[1]

This study was made ten years ago and those ten years have been marked by an upsurge in grouping and in the studies of its effect on learning and teaching. John Goodlad stated in 1960 that "perhaps the most controversial issue of classroom organization in recent years is whether or not students of like ability should be grouped together for instructional purposes."[2]

In some ways school administrators and teachers over the nation run hot and cold on grouping practices as the social situation changes. This was pretty aptly described by an elementary school principal who said, "I'm still administering a departmentalized elementary school, and if I can hold on a year or two longer, I'll be out in front again."

Changes in society create changes in school. We remember well the shock of the first satellite put into space and the great furor and the barrage of criticism that came upon the public school for its failure to provide adequately the kind of education needed for this kind of world.

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[1] *Teaching Rapid and Slow Learners in High School* (Washington, U. S. Dept. of Health, Edu., and Welfare, Bulletin 1954, #5) pp. 6-13.

[2] John I. Goodlad, "Classroom Organization," *Encyclopedia of Edu. Research* (N. Y., The Macmillan Company, 1960), p. 223.

Even though we are affected, we must keep a balance between the barrage of criticism and the fact that we must meet the needs of all kinds of students in our schools.

One of the changes that came about in our schools was the rush to ability grouping—in some cases, I'm afraid, without a thorough study of the reasons for and gains to be made by such a change.

In a recent article, Maurice J. Eash stated:

> It is imperative that sanctioned grouping practices are those which will support the *development of democratic behavior and encourage individual development.* Ability grouping sometimes erroneously referred to as homogeneous grouping customarily places children in a class according to standardized test scores. *One primary motivation for practicing ability grouping has been the assumption that children, especially bright children, learn more if they are grouped according to ability and are taught separately.* How valid is this assumption? Research findings seem to support the following generalization—*ability grouping in itself does not provide improved achievement in children.* (Improved achievement results from manipulation of complex factors involved in curriculum, adaptation, teaching methods, materials, ability of the teacher to relate to the children, and other subtle variables.)[3]

Eash is making a plea for study and thoughtful deliberation before revising a successful teaching-learning arrangement, especially if it is to satisfy the whims of some group or to crawl aboard a particular band wagon. If education is man's going forward from cocksureness to thoughtful uncertainty, surely people responsible for educational procedures should descend from their pinnacle of cocksureness to a thoughtful look at the results of grouping for the most effective teaching-learning situation. Both the NEA and the ASCD national groups and some state groups have contributed greatly to the knowledge on effective grouping. I should like to call your attention to a Michigan ASCD study which produced "How Grouping Practices Affect Learning" and the national ASCD study which resulted in two pamphlets, "The Junior High School We Saw" and "The Junior High School We Need."

An interesting study was conducted in 94 junior high schools in 26 states in the preparation of "The Junior High School We Saw" to determine what was going on in junior high school education across the nation. Some 102 shadow studies were conducted to learn what kind of a plan was used and its effect upon the teaching-learning situation. The shadow study plan is not a new technique, but one about which you read little in the literature. The observer would select a student, or have one selected for him, to follow through the school day routine. This is where the idea of a shadow comes into the picture. Through this method the observer recorded activities in the room, the individual contacts the student had, attitudes displayed, and other pertinent facts about the instructional procedures.

The following is a summary of observations relative to the subject under discussion:

It was not until near the end of the last hour of the day that this particular student had anything resembling individual attention and even this seemed to be almost accidental. For much of the day the observer felt that if this student had been absent, she would not have been missed.

Typical observer's comments were:

I would not want to be an 8th grader . . .

on such a tight daily schedule
when I was not involved in planning
where most teachers lectured and treated us as sponges
where I could get by very nicely by just being quiet, orderly, and just following directions
where my learning was bookish, fragmentized, and purposes were not clear
where I had no opportunity for *me* to grow

The comment of the committee after this summary was: "This was the predominant but not universal view of the junior high school we saw on March 3rd, 1962."[4]

From the results obtained from this study, we should observe that grouping by ability was not solving the educational problems we might assume that it could solve.

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[3] Maurice J. Eash, "Grouping, What We Have Learned", *Educational Leadership*, V. 10, (1961), p. 429.

[4] John H. Lounsbury, Jean Victoria Marani, *The Junior High School We Saw.* Washington: NEA, 1964.

However, grouping of some kind can never be avoided, if, for no other reason than the large number of children we have in our schools and the mass methods of education which are in use today. It is necessary to revert immediately to the purpose for which children are grouped. In the junior high school, as in the elementary school and high school, it is not taken into account that learnings result from membership in the various formal and informal groups. Evidence seems to support the conclusion that ample opportunity for *flexibility* in grouping is among the most important guiding principles. Over and over educators have said that the real goal on which we should not compromise is individualization of instruction. It has been said consistently that children and teachers need time to know and to be known, that the problems that we wrestle with are basically problems of value—*what is of worth, and what is of greater worth?*

We in this country believe that the individual is of greater worth. Yet in some of our educational practices we act superficially about this belief. Our practices belie our beliefs. Nevertheless, attempts are constantly made to improve this image in dealing with the student in junior high school.

With these thoughts in mind, I wish to review a plan for grouping used by a junior high school which has in it the tenants advocated by research and researchers:

1. Flexibility
2. Purposes for teaching
3. Knowledge of students
4. Knowledge of teachers, their methods and teaching materials

It was felt advisable to assemble as many pertinent facts as possible about every individual student. In order to do this, individual student data sheets were handed to teachers at the latter part of the school year. All names of students of a particular grade were listed. Places for grades, IQ, achievement test records, special needs, and teacher rating according to a 4-step plan were provided. The 4-step plan rated the students as (1) High group; (2) High average to average; (3) Low Average; (4) Special Education. Each teacher was given the opportunity and responsibility for placing students in a group where he or she felt they could be most successful. When this information was assembled, it was transferred to a complete class record sheet and there it was listed by teacher rating first. All other factors were secondary. The principal and counselors had the responsibility for the final placing of students in groups. Teachers in four areas, usually those who had students in language arts, social studies, mathematics, and science rated every student in the grade. Although much time and effort is expended by the teacher, guidance counselor and principal, it is felt that this method of grouping students for the most effective learning resulted in fewer children being placed in groups where they could not be successful. Students who were rated low enough to be categorized as special education applicants are given an opportunity for language arts, social studies and mathematics under the direction of one teacher. These students move through other areas of the curriculum such as science, art, music, band, shop, home ec, and physical education with a deliberate effort to see that they are in heterogenous groups.

Teachers have the opportunity to consult with the principal and guidance counselors on students whom they feel have been misplaced. Every consideration is given the teacher's judgment in the matter and suitable placement is attempted for individual students. Consideration is also given to the requests and desires of individual students who may be placed in situations where they feel they are unsuited.

Although far from being perfect, this grouping plan meets the needs of students, staff and community as well as any plan that has ever been devised for the school in which it is used.

One of the strengths of this technique is that students of near like abilities are together for most academic subjects, yet have many opportunities for contact with students of all strata of abilities in four to five other areas. This eliminates social stigma which is a perennial objection to ability grouping.

Another strength of this plan is the

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deliberate attempt to feather or dovetail students in class groups in such a way that all or most all classes have benefit of leadership qualities.

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2. Word Recognition and Vocabulary Development

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THE INCREASING number of retarded readers arriving at the junior high level is a source of growing concern on the part of teachers everywhere. Clinical studies show that the majority of these pupils are those who never learned, at the outset of reading, how to put into operation the parts of the first, basic reading skill—word recognition.

Before considering word recognition itself, it is both relevant and necessary to see clearly its relationship to "language" and then, more specifically, its relationship to reading.

Language as we commonly understand it is a means of communication achieved through the avenues of listening, speaking, reading, and writing. An individual unable to read or write, we term illiterate; nevertheless, this is not to underestimate the importance of listening and speaking. On the contrary, the ability to read and write grows out of our experiences of listening and speaking. Language is, indeed, a personal thing and as such develops from personal experience.

A child is not born with "language." Language is learned. A child first listens for about one year and then he begins to speak. When he begins speaking he does not stop listening, but combines listening and speaking. Through this process—the combination of listening and speaking—research studies indicate that the average child acquires, over a period of some five years, an aural vocabulary of about 10,000 words. The gifted or superior child at the age of six is believed to have as many as 24,000 words. It is this substantial vocabulary, along with a set of language patterns, often complex as well as simple, that the child brings with him to first grade. It is this aural vocabulary which is the basis for learning to read and write. The ease, therefore, with which the child learns to read and write depends largely not only upon his aural vocabulary, but also upon his ability to handle speech patterns—to combine words and to express ideas.

Reading, one of the components of language, is itself a complex of skills, and some of the basic skills are: (a) word recognition, (b) comprehension, (c) assimilation, (d) evaluation, and (e) speed. Reading authorities, although agreed upon the basic skills of reading, are not always agreed upon the terms or the methods of teaching the specific skills, for each has his own.

Word Recognition: What It Implies

Word recognition consists of a number of parts: the sight-word, phonetic analysis, structural analysis, and context clues.

Over the years two parts of word recognition—the sight-word and phonetic analysis—frequently have been misrepresented. Incorrectly, they have been used to describe methods of, or approaches to, teaching the whole process of reading; and so used, have been a source of controversy and confusion. There is simply no such thing as a "sight-word" *or* a "phonetic" method of teaching reading! Both the sight-word and phonetic analysis are parts of one reading skill—word recognition. There can be different methods of teaching these specific parts. These methods can be good or bad, effective or ineffective. But the parts themselves—the sight-word and phonetic analysis—are neither good nor bad; they are merely parts, and important parts, of one reading skill.

Word Recognition: How It Operates

The sight-word. At the outset of reading, the sight-word is the word which is told outright and is the basis for teaching phonetic and structural analysis. As the skill of word recognition is developed, the sight-word takes on a new and different meaning and applies to those words immediately recognized "at sight." The term "sight-word" appears to be a source of confusion for many because so often one and only one meaning is associated with or attached to it.

The sight-word works in conjunction with and is supported by context; it must. For most common words in English have more than one meaning and which meaning is pertinent depends upon the total context—the context of the sentence or the paragraph. For example, let us take the word *read*. If I asked you to identify this word, you might answer *rēad* or you might answer *rĕad*, but you cannot really know. On the other hand, if I said: *I like to read*, you would know that it was *rēad*. Likewise, if I were to say: *I have read four books*, you would know that it was *rĕad*. *Read* therefore, is a sight-word for you and for me, but it has no sure meaning outside context. This fact is basic to vocabulary development.

Let us take still another example (and the analogy can be made with any of the common words in English): suppose that the child meets the word *go*, pronounces it perfectly, and associates the meaning with *"Time goes fast."* He learns to recognize the word *back* and associates the meaning with *"The back is a part of the body."* He learns to recognize the word *up* and associates the meaning with *"The price is going up."* He learns to recognize the word *head* and associates the meaning with *"The head is a part of the body."* Then let us further suppose that at some future time he encounters in his reading such a sentence: *"Go ahead, back up."* He pronounces the words correctly but there is no comprehension. And so it is often believed that children can "read," when they are merely pronouncing words.

In addition to the fact that *go, up, head, back* by themselves have numerous meanings, when combined they produce special meanings called idioms. These meanings are not derived from the combination of any two or more literal meanings, but work together in groups.

Phonetic analysis. Just as the term "sight-word" is a constant source of confusion, so are the terms: "phonetics," "phonics," and "phonetic analysis." What do these terms mean? Phonetics is the science of speech sounds; phonics is the application of phonetics to the teaching of reading. Phonetic analysis, on the other hand, is the process of application in getting at or identifying a new word.

There are those who, lacking a clear understanding of what phonics really is and how it operates, add still further to the confusion. Attempting to show the limitations of phonics, they maintain that phonics assumes that each letter has a sound. The misuse of phonics would assume as much and often does. As stated before, however, phonics is the application of phonetics to the teaching of reading. As such it enables a child to approximate the sound in a word. If the word is in his aural vocabulary, he knows both meaning and pronunciation. Through phonetic analysis, he can tie the pronunciation which he knows to the printed symbols.

Any method of teaching phonics which involves, in whole or in part, teaching the isolated sounds of the alphabet or phonetic elements is a "wide detour on the road to reading proficiency." To do so is to divorce phonetic analysis from meaning, and phonetic analysis divorced from meaning has no meaning. For example, *eat*, which by itself is a word, in *heat* bears no relation. Likewise, there is no transfer of meaning or pronunciation to such words as: weather, great, create, etc. The value of teaching phonetic elements as patterns or teaching rhyming words, therefore, might well be questioned.

Structural analysis. Structural analysis, which has to do with word-parts, suffixes, and prefixes, like sight-word and phonetic analysis, can be misused. Under the guise of structural analysis, to teach a child to find "little words" in big words contributes little to pronunciation and even less to meaning. For example, to find *at, the, he, her* in the word *gather* is no help to unlocking the word *gather*.

Structural analysis deals with words whose base or root is a meaningful unit to which prefixes and/or suffixes have been added. But in much the same way that the combination of known words does not always yield a literal meaning, the combination of a base or a root plus a prefix or a suffix does not always yield a literal meaning, since most prefixes especially have more than one meaning. The ability, nevertheless, to see readily within the structure of a word this meaningful unit and to recognize the addition of a prefix or a suffix is indeed a great aid to vocabulary development.

Context clues. At first glance, this part of word recognition appears to be the simplest. Clues imbedded in context many times do enable a child to identify a word. But like the preceding parts of word recognition, this part also is frequently misused. The danger here lies in encouraging a child to "guess" at the word in contexts where no sure clues are present.

Finally, in the job of identifying or recognizing a word, all the parts of word recognition should work together in balance within the framework of context. Although word recognition is the initial basic skill in reading and an important aspect of reading, its relationship to the *total* reading process should never be obscured. For ***word recognition*** is but the ***beginning*** of reading.

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2. A Construct of Comprehension

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> Wisdom is the principal thing; *therefore* get wisdom:
> and with all thy getting get understanding.
> Proverbs: 4:7

TAKEN out of context, this biblical admonition, ". . . with all thy getting get understanding," could well apply today to our concept of teaching reading. In fact, it has become so important that we like to speculate about the mental steps involved in the process of comprehending a passage or establishing rapport with an author.

What, then, is comprehension? What is involved in the mental processes that begin with the reader's first glance at a printed passage and end with his understanding of the message the writer is trying to convey *via* the printed page?

There are many terms that we use rather glibly, yet when we are asked to define them we are "hard put to it" as the old expression goes. Each of us must build a theory or construct of this complex process of bringing meaning to the printed page so that the reader can establish rapport with an author. Thus if an author or speaker wishes to communicate with a reader or listener, he must code his thoughts, concepts, ideas, etc. into a symbol system that will be understandable to the reader or listener. A decoding process then takes place. The reader or listener must decode the message into a symbol system that is also meaningful. Therefore, the more congruent these two signal systems, the more effective will be the communication process; rapport will thus be established between author and reader, between speaker and listener.

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*The writer is indebted to Mrs. Billie Hubrig, Graduate Student Assistant, Reading Laboratory, University of Pittsburgh, for her help in preparing this article.

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Before 1915, when early emphasis in reading was on its oral aspects, not much attention was paid to comprehension. In fact the term is rarely found in the literature. But many textbooks frequently admonished pupils as to the art of reading aloud with the art of elocution which also included *perspicuity,* defined by Webster as "the quality of being clear to the understanding; lucidity in expression or the development of ideas."

The term *comprehension* had many synonyms. Romanes,[1] in the latter part of the nineteenth century, called it the "power of assimilation." Abell[2] a decade later did use the term comprehension.

However, as late as 1916 Judd[3] and Gray[4] used the expression "quality of reading" to denote comprehension.

Finally in the Sixteenth Yearbook Gray[4] used the term *comprehension* to denote the obtaining of meaning through reading. Subsequent yearbooks and other publications devoted much more space and attention to the concept. Today *comprehension* is being emphasized as the major consideration in all reading.

In order to give a backdrop to a construct of comprehension, let us review what other writers have said concerning the nature of comprehension.

Lindley Murray[5] quotes Beattie, "Children are not often taught to read with proper emphasis. . . . When books are put before them which they do not understand, it is impossible they should apply it properly. Let them therefore, read nothing but what is level to their capacity.'

Samuel Kirkham[6] gives us some sage advice concerning the absurd practice of *verbalism* in reading:

> . . . for I would rather give you one useful idea, than fifty high-sounding words, the meaning of which you would probably be unable to comprehend. And I wish you particularly to remember, that I am all the while conversing with yourself, even you who are now reading these lines, and not with somebody else; therefore I presume you will not pursue the absurd and ridiculous practice of *reading* without *thinking;* . . . of merely pronouncing the words without paying any attention to their *meaning;* but I trust you will reflect upon every sentence you read, and endeavor, if possible, to comprehend the sense; for, if you do not exercise your mind, you would do better not to read at all.

John Wilson[7] comments on the use of punctuation marks as an aid to comprehension:

> . . . as oral speech has its tones and inflections, its pauses and its emphases, and other variations of voice to give greater expression to the thoughts which spoken words represent . . . so written or printed language is usually accompanied by marks or points, to enable the reader to comprehend at a glance the precise and determinate sense of the author—a sense which, without these marks, would in many instances be gathered only by an elaborate and painful process, and very often misunderstood.

Edmund Huey,[8] *The Psychology and Pedagogy of Reading* has some interesting perceptions concerning the reading process:

> We may safely conclude, then, that meanings in reading are mainly feeling reactions and motor attitudes attaching most intimately to or fused with the inner

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[1] George J. Romanes, *Mental Evolution in Animals* (New York: Appleton and Company, 1884), pp. 136-137.

[2] Adelaide M. Abell, "Rapid Reading: Advantage and Methods," *Educational Review,* Vol. 8, October 1894, pp. 283-286.

[3] Charles H. Judd, *Measuring the Work of the Public Schools,* Vol. 10, Cleveland Public Schools, The Survey Committee of the Cleveland Foundation, 1916, p. 153.

[4] William S. Gray, "The Relation of Silent Reading to Economy in Education," *Sixteenth Yearbook, Part I, National Society for the Study of Education,* Bloomington, Illinois, Public School Publishing Company, 1917, p. 28.

[5] Lindley Murray, *Introduction to the English Reader* (Pittsburgh: Spear and Eichbaum, 1916), p. V.

[6] Samuel Kirkham, *English Grammar in Familiar Lectures,* accompanied by a compendium; Embracing a New Systematic Order of Passing, 2nd Edition (Harrisburg: Wiestling, 1924), p. 14.

[7] John Wilson, *A Treatise on English Punctuation* (Boston: Crosby, Nichols, and Company, 1858), pp. 1-2.

[8] Edmund Huey, *The Psychology and Pedagogy of Reading* (New York: The MacMillan Company, 1916), pp. 167, 302, and 249-350.

> utterance of the words and especially of the sentences that are read.
>
> Practice in abstracting meaning, in grasping the essentials of a page's thought, has been little thought of in the reading lesson.
>
> Both the inner utterance and reading aloud are natural in the early years and are to be encouraged, but only when left thus free, to be dominated only by the purpose of getting and expressing meanings, and until the insidious thought of reading as word pronouncing is well worked out of our heads, it is well to place the emphasis strongly where it really belongs, on reading as thought getting, independently of expression.

An early attempt to list, in sequential steps, how meaning is acquired was given by Arthur W. Kallom:[9]

> The aim of silent reading is to teach pupils to obtain the thought from the printed page for himself. Silent reading is followed by a form of reproduction at a future time.
>
> Until recently the teacher of the upper elementary grades has not felt the importance of teaching silent reading. Even now it is very probable that she does not realize the full importance of this teaching. Reading oral or silent means the recognition of the printed word as a symbol and a correct interpretation of the symbol into a picture for which the symbol stands.
>
> This is not . . . . a simple process. It may be analyzed into the following factors:
>
> "Factors in Silent Reading"
>
> 1. Correct visualization of each word.
> 2. Knowledge of the various meanings of each word.
> 3. Choice of the correct meaning as shown by context.
> 4. Forming of the correct relations between these meanings in order to interpret phrases and clauses.
> 5. Forming of the correct relations between phrases and clauses in order to interpret sentences and paragraphs.

It is interesting to note that the author stops with paragraph comprehension.

As late as 1955, Gerald A. Yoakam[10] had some interesting conclusions concerning an understanding of the term *comprehension:*

> The term *comprehension*, which is used to represent the general comprehension of meaning in reading, has never been completely described. Various attempts have been made to describe and define it. It is usually defined as the process of grasping the meaning of spoken or written language. It seems likely that comprehension is a complex which involves the mental process of recognition, or association of meaning, evaluation of suggested meaning, selection of the correct meaning, and generalization based on the meanings of details involved in a context. Some writers would add the anticipation of meaning to this complex. Anticipation of meanings is the ability of the reader to orient himself to sentences and paragraphs so that he can quickly adjust himself to the thought presented in terms of his past experience and in terms of the reasonableness of the statements which are being made.

George Spache[11] has given us the best theoretical model or construct which describes the operation of the basic intellectual processes in the act of reading. These processes are listed as a column on the left side of a two-dimensional chart:

1. Cognition—recognition of information
2. Memory—retention of information
3. Divergent Production—logical, creative ideas
4. Convergent Production—conclusions, inductive thinking
5. Evaluation—critical thinking

At the top of the chart there is a row of items, namely, Unit (word), Class (sentence), Relations (the interrelationships of sentences), Systems (arrangements of sentences we call paragraphs), Transformations (the manipulation of paragraphs), and Implications (inferential reactions to paragraphs.) At the intersection of a column with a row will be found a terse explanation of the intellectual processes involved. A case in point would be as follows: at the intersection of convergent production and relations (interrelationships of sentences) we find the following: "evolving main idea as extension of topic sentence." Again, at the intersection of Evaluative and Implications we find the following admonition: "Check author's background as basis for viewpoints; react to author's value judgments; examine author's basic assumptions and inferences from these."

I have stated or implied that the concept *comprehension* seems to defy any attempt at explanation or the act of setting down discrete steps which explain the intellectual processes involved. Many studies or attempts have been made to isolate factors that are related to this complex process.

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[9] Arthur W. Kallom, "Reproduction as a Measure of Reading Ability," *Journal of Educational Research*, Vol. 1 (May 1920), pp. 359-368.

[10] Gerald A. Yoakam, *Basal Reading Instruction* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1955), pp. 63-64.

[11] George Spache, *Toward Better Reading* (Champaign: Illinois, Garrard Publishing Company, 1962), p. 67.

Seven notable studies, using factorial analysis, are now available. Five of the seven studies identify a "word" factor reflecting an understanding of the denotive meaning of a word. Six of the studies reveal a second verbal factor which probably measures the ability to comprehend the interrelationships among words or ideas. All of the studies disclosed a third factor in ascertaining the meaning intended by the author, namely, the analysis-synthesis of concepts. Therefore, these seven studies provide us with a matrix upon which we may build a structure that perhaps will give us insight into the mental processes we use as we attempt to establish *rapport,* a bond of mutual confidence between reader and author, or listener and speaker.

I wish to propose a *construct* or *model* which, I believe, explains the intellectual processes that are employed as the reader or listener acquires an insight or a Gestalt of the concepts that are portrayed by the language of the writer or speaker.

I. Perception

The child must see clearly the graphic symbols which we refer to as words. These words have no inherent meanings, therefore, perception goes beyond the sensory data. Words are words, things are things, relationships are relationships; words are related to things or to relationships as each reader relates them. Thus the critical element in perception is the meaningful response rather than simple recognition. There is the perception of the word, the phrase, the sentences, the paragraph, and the larger unit of meaning—the story, article, etc. Space does not permit me to explore perceptual veridicality, the effect of emotionally loaded words or the effect of an emotional attitude on the response evoked as a result of the sensory processes.

II. Apperception

Korzybski notes that reading is the reconstruction of events behind the symbols. Apperception refers to the process of relating new material to one's background of experience—it is perception characterized by clearness. The reader is bringing sufficient meaning to the printed page to permit him to obtain from the page only an approximation of the experiences the writer is trying to convey. Thus the writer and reader must have had some commonality of experience. And the degree of veridicality obtained is in direct proportion to the degree of commonality of the experience.

III. Abstraction

This refers to the mental process by which the reader neglects or cuts off certain perceptions, or impressions, or select facts of concepts which are relevant to the purpose of the reading. The process of selecting a specific meaning from a generic meaning may be called abstraction. Through the process of abstraction a reader selects the materials of thinking, and I refer to Russell's[12] list, namely, precepts, concepts, images, and memories.

IV. Appraisal

This refers to the process of estimating the value of, the validity of the aforementioned materials of thinking, according to accepted norms, standards or processes. This is one of the most critical steps in the model. It is also the most complicated. The veridicality of percepts, concepts, images, and memories cannot be overestimated. This process of validation can range all the way from ascertaining if a fact is accurate to the complicated process in forming clear, concise, and well organized concepts. It can also refer to the highest level of thinking—creative thinking in which new syntheses are made.

V. Ideation

From the validated gleanings secured as a result of the above steps—and I reinterject that these gleanings must always be related to the purpose or purposes in reading—a reader then uses them as the materials of reasoning in the following modes of thinking:

1. Inductive (generalizing) reasoning

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[12] David H. Russell, *Children's Thinking* (New York: Ginn and Company), p. 8.

is that mode which proceeds from known data to a generalization, such as a hypothesis that will explain the evidence at hand. A concept is the product of generalizing; a judgment or an opinion may also be the end product of inductive thinking. Laws or principles learned in science courses are generalizations formed by abstracting relevant data from complex masses of data. A prediction is a special form of inductive thinking as well as theorizing, in which a person builds a construct or a model to explain certain phenomena.

2. Deductive reasoning. As a process of reasoning, deduction consists of examining a particular situation or fact in the light of a generalization. A syllogism is an example of this mode of thinking, such as: "Nearly all boys can swim. Francis is a boy. Therefore, Francis probably can swim." A conclusion, a judgment, or an opinion may be the end product of this mode of thinking.

3. Critical thinking or reasoning. This mode of thinking proceeds on the basis of a careful evaluation of premises, facts, etc. and comes to conclusions cautiously through the consideration of all pertinent factors. Critical thinking or reading demands an interaction between the author and reader as well as between speaker and listener. Ascertaining cause and effect relationships makes maximum use of this mode of thinking. Detecting propaganda devices is another example of this high-level comprehension skill.

Helping children to improve their critical reading abilities will challenge the best efforts of teachers as the children will need help in evaluating facts from which generalizations are made; in rendering a judgment on the clarity and organization of concepts that are used in building other concepts; in detecting the biases that authors may have; in recognizing propaganda techniques employed by subversive groups; and in recognizing whether the author is capable of making sound and valid judgments. Last and certainly not least, the reader must make a judgment as to whether or not his (reader) background and abilities permit him to make an unbiased judgment about the author's ideas.

4. Problem solving (scientific mode of thinking). This is, perhaps, the most directed of all thinking. It is really an embodiment of the four types listed above. When this type of thinking is manifested by a student, he or she is aware of some problem that must be solved, or a conflict that must be resolved. Five or six steps are usually listed when an attempt is made to describe the processes involved. These steps might be listed as follows:

a. The child's environment has made him *aware of a problem,* or a conflict arises between opposing sets of values. These situations stimulate his mental activity.

b. An *orientation* to the problem takes place. The child may start to think in one direction and then, in another. At the same time he may be gathering evidence to substantiate or refine earlier concepts or conclusions.

c. A tentative solution, or a *hypothesis* is formed as a result of the patterning of the several data. The Gestalt principle of *closure* may be emerging. The child, therefore, gets an insight into a possible solution.

d. An *evaluation* or a testing of the hypothesis then takes place. During this step, the tentative solution or hypothesis is subjected to the most critical examination. As a result, it is either accepted or rejected.

e. The selected solution, or hypothesis is subjected to the *test of use.* This is the stage of verification.

5. Creative thinking. This is thinking at its highest level. Some would say that the ability to draw inferences is one aspect of creative reading. The making of new syntheses or seeing new relationships is another aspect of creative thinking. Still another product of creative thinking is a critical reaction to a treatise on a controversial issue.

VI. Application

If the proof of the pudding is in the eating, in like manner, the effectiveness of a reading program is determined largely by the functional uses readers make of the new ideas acquired. They broaden experiences, increase understandings, and enable one to learn how to engage in many kinds of activities which would otherwise be unknown to him. If students are given aid as they formulate purposes for reading a particular selection, enhancement of the utilitarian uses of reading will occur.

In this paper, an attempt was made to present a construct of comprehension. I am not apologetic about it. It represents, at least, to me, a brief description of the intellectual processes necessary as a reader brings meaning to the printed page thereby establishing rapport with the author. I am sure it has weaknesses—but it must be remembered that I have only shreds of evidence upon which to build the construct.

Every teacher should become as articulate as possible concerning the nature of the reading process. A teacher's concept of the intellectual processes employed as a child comprehends a passage will be reflected in the reading atmosphere she creates for her children. I refer again to the biblical admonition:

> Wisdom is the principal thing; *therefore* get wisdom: and
> with all thy getting get understanding.

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2. Study Skills Needed in the English Classroom

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NILA BANTON SMITH distinguishes between the "common reading skills" and the "common study skills." The former apply in all kinds of reading situations regardless of whether or not the individual is studying; these include such matters as setting purpose, skimming, reading intensively, reacting to what is read, and the like. The "common study skills," however, and our concern here, are those which are applied only when something must be done with the content while reading it or after finishing the reading.

The Common Study Skills

While many classifications of study skills are available—almost all commonly inclusive—three will serve to demonstrate the recommended approaches. Last November, the International Reading Association sponsored a conference on "Study Skills in the Secondary School" with papers on each of the major skills. These included the following: using book parts; sources of information; the word study skills; organization perceived or correct entry into material read; organization produced or the methods of abstracting and recording pertinent content read or heard; and the use of textbooks' visual aids, such as interpretation of maps, charts, graphs, and so forth. It is evident that this comprehensive examination of skills has equal application in every content area at every level of school whatever the ability or vocational direction of the student. Furthermore, the experienced English teacher will immediately visualize how each of these relate to the language arts of reading, writing, speaking, and listening.

Another excellent model is that which

Ruth Strang[1] developed after consultation and interviews with high school students. Her study-skills emphasis is quite applicable to the English classroom where major concern is with reading and literary appreciation or with developing competence or proficiency in writing. It includes the following: (1) Vocabulary building to develop familiarity and excite motivation particularly through study of context, semantic relationships, and basic word recognition, if necessary. (2) Understanding sentence and paragraph structure, both in reading and in writing. This involves analysis of paragraphs, noting general structure, main ideas and supporting details and illustrations. With longer passages, the students would be given practice in outlining and making summaries. (3) All of the locational and reference skills. (4) The reading process from preview to review, in essence nothing more than SQ3R made meaningful. (5) Interpretation and appreciation skills, including clues to plot and character development. (6) Critical reading or the ability to analyze difficult but important passages in reading. (7) An entire program of voluntary reading, which Strang's students felt was frequently overdone. (8) The communication skills which would be exercised in oral reports, radio and TV listening.

Nila B. Smith has undoubtedly made a more definitive and penetrating examination of all the study skills than any other authority. Her study-skills sequence for the elementary grades is equally justified in the junior high grades.[2] She breaks down the common study skills into the following interdependent categories: (1) selection and evaluation of content, or recognition of what is important in a reading; (2) organization, or putting together ideas that belong together; (3) recall of what has been read, or fixing it so that it may be retrieved when needed; (4) locating information whether in textbooks, reference books, or periodicals; and (5) following directions. She places selection and evaluation first because all others, particularly organization and recall, depend on these.

All of which raises the question—what should the English teacher select and emphasize in her program? It is possible to introduce, instruct, and persist in the practice of needed study skills while meeting the content demands of your course. Let me suggest some guiding principles and then dwell on specific practices to incorporate in your daily teaching if you are not already doing so. These principles are not special to English or to study skills, but rather are only sound pedagogy.

Some Principles

1. If we accept that study is a "process of acquiring by one's own efforts knowledge of a subject," it is then our primary responsibility to lead our students to independence or self-dependence in their learning. There are several implications in this statement. A simple explanation of better techniques, whether content or study, is inadequate without continuing supervised practice to fix the skill. The teacher who is convinced both of the validity of this principle and the importance of any skill will grasp every opportunity to renew motivation and exploit the occasion. Independence supposes initiative. Students cannot be molded into common practice; rather they must be encouraged to adapt, modify, personalize study techniques, abstracting from every procedure what best fits the individual need.

2. If pupils must personalize to achieve independence, so too the teacher must individualize teaching. Just as we give diagnostic tests in reading, we should likewise give some diagnostic or appraisal device to determine knowledge of outlining, library and reference skills, dictionary work, vocabulary, whatever it may be. Some students are bound to know some of the skills—the library, how to read a paragraph, how to make an outline. Even after diagnosis, instruction must be flexible; the junior high student will not need the same skills practice as the student in the upper grades; the terminal student needs emphasis different from the college-bound student.

3. Teach the sub-skills first. Students

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[1] Ruth Strang, "Teaching Reading, An Essential Part of Teaching English," in *Reading in the Secondary School*, M. Jerry Weiss, editor. New York: Odyssey Press, 1961, pp. 351-357.

[2] Nila B. Smith, *Reading Instruction for Today's Children*, Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, 1963.

can't develop outlines until they discriminate between the various relations in a paragraph. How many of these so-called specialized skills which were included in the models cited earlier are not already a part of your ordinary English instruction—and many of these are in the sub-skill category? No junior high English class goes two days running without some examination of word-recognition techniques, of vocabulary development techniques; every time you read an essay, a story, a poem with your pupils you are leading them more deeply into the intricacies of critical reading. You never examine an author's intent in any kind of reading without extension to a student's potential writing; every time a pupil gives attention to the development of an oral report he is furthering his ability to organize. And all of this is basic to his own orderly thinking, which in turn is fundamental to private study attack.

4. The English teacher can't be expected to do everything—and all too frequently this is just what is expected. How can we share some of the responsibility, develop more cooperation with other content areas? It has been stated that the social studies people are doing more in developing study skills material and integrating it with content than any other teaching area, certainly far more than English teachers are. Why not exploit the opportunity? Social studies people are dedicated to library - research - reference work; why not work out cooperative measures so that English and social studies classes could develop joint projects along this line, or perhaps arrange for the social studies to assume this single responsibility completely? The English class can present vocabulary reading and the organizing skills better than any other class; so, too, social studies classes might be better equipped for such skills as using the textbook efficiently and learning the SQ3R method of study.

5. From all the models above, certain areas of instruction emerge—none more so than the need of selective, evaluative reading and the ability to organize not only what has been read but likewise what is to be written. These skills are particularly suitable to the content of the English program.

Some Practical Points

It is my experience that fundamental to good reading entry and subsequent organization is the teacher's ability to handle questioning. Artful questioning is the soul of good teaching and is fundamental to any successful, independent study. Even the mechanical techniques for study, SQ3R and PQRST, rest on the student's ability to ask *himself* good questions; intensive reading and organizational skill alike rest on the ability to probe into the *why* of what is said or to be said more than into the *what.*

If it is accepted that our fundamental obligation as teachers is to lead our students to think, this will be accomplished not by constant lecturing or book-centered learning but by adroit, persistent, searching questions. Too frequently questions directed to students are of a factual nature, requiring only a monosyllabic answer. Teachers tend to direct their questions to the same pupils—either those likely to have the right answers or those not likely to have any answer. They are impatient about waiting for an answer or in helping a student think out an answer. Pupils get to know that if they can endure a moment's embarrassment, the teacher will pass the question to someone else after a brief period of silence. Too many teachers are governed by the amount of subject matter which must be covered and are reluctant to permit a student time to search and grope for the correct answer—which may only emerge after some halting incorrect responses. Good questioning is an art which leads the student to examine his own reactions to the material read; its relevance to his own life or contemporary activity, to the basic reasoning or principles underlying the facts.

Another skill area—one which falls ideally within the province of the English teacher—is that of reading entry, that is, not so much "getting something out" of one's reading as "getting initially into" the reading. The content of the English course provides a greater variety of content—in essays, fiction, descriptive pieces, drama and poetry—than do subjects with rigidly confined content material. Moreover, the reason for reading these materials in English is more appreciative, less pragmatic, than other content subjects and permits the teacher to emphasize a wider range of purposes in reading than would be the case in the social studies or science where a body of knowledge must be abstracted. What the English teacher is seeking, understanding and appreciation, is what is best achieved (1) by practice in reading for the different purposes inherent in the several types of literature; plot, character and action in fiction; sensuous response in descriptive literature; inversion, compression and ellipsis in poetry; revelation of action and character through dialogue in drama; and (2) by analytic and leisurely examination of the components of creative writing; the word in context and the dynamic use of diction; power and variety in sentence structure; the gradual but purposeful accrual to unity in a paragraph.

Our reading in the English class always has a second purpose—that of making better writers of our students—which will be served by the kind of instruction here advocated. When the teacher leads his students to focus their attention on the meaning in the major clause of a sentence, noting that the subordinate clause only refers to a single aspect of the statement, pupils may be induced to effect the same in their next theme. Or when the teacher leads his students through analysis of a paragraph to appreciate that all of the individual details unify into a key idea which is inferred but not stated, their own ability to build ideas into paragraphs is augmented.

These skills, however, while enhancing classroom instruction, must become part of the student's own repertory of independent learning. If he grows to realize, in the first place, the unique internal specifications by which a writer is governed in a particular genre, he should be able to gear himself to read for a set purpose. On the other hand, when he has become accustomed to examining the external structure—words, phrases and clauses, sentences and paragraphs—through which a total effect is achieved, he should be able—and, we hope, inclined—to analyze and synthesize toward better, if not complete, meaning. Accepting normal motivation toward success on the part of the student, it is our duty to equip him with the methods and techniques by which he can pursue learning independently. We can only hope that the student will transfer techniques from the communal domain of the classroom to his private study, from work in English to the demanding content of other subjects.

A third area of study-skills emphasis needed in the English classroom is organization, either in abstracting essential material from what is read and heard or in assembling one's own thoughts in orderly fashion to present them through oral or written composition. This, you will note, is already a part of the total curricular effort in English—note-taking, outlining, summarizing, precis-writing.

The normal English curriculum gives consistent and sequential attention to most of the organizational skills. After all, outlining is an expected adjunct of theme work; precis-writing is but another form of summarizing and formal note-taking which, in turn, are basic to the research paper. Junior-high anthologies devote considerable attention to organization as an insightful reading skill, examining organizational patterns as found in paragraph structure and typical selections, and emphasizing discrimination between main and subordinate ideas, between topic sentences and details. Composition series may have entire chapters on order, classification and subordination, or short units on outlining as it relates to theme-writing as well as informal note-taking for general study purposes.

Moreover, these skills—outlining, note-taking, and summarizing—are closely intertwined, at times even inseparable. The incidental notes recorded during a class session may become an outline for more orderly study; summaries of a series of related outside readings may be turned into an organized pattern prior to an oral class presentation, report, or research project. The outline which records in some prescribed pattern the development of a talk or reading selection reminds the student that his own notes should focus on essential ideas in some ordered, related fashion. Exercise in precis-writing requires a student to cut through illustration, detail and trivia to the exact statement of the core idea; in turn, his own summaries and notes should be more concise, clear, and orderly.

These are but a few of the many intriguing ways in which these important organizational skills may be made significant in the study-work habits of students. But once again, if independence is to be developed, the teacher must be conscious of every opportunity of re-inforcing in his students the value and practice of these techniques.

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2. Experience and Vocabulary Development

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MEANING comes from experience. The meaning of any symbol comes to us from our experience with that symbol—with what it does to us, with what it makes us do and feel. Words are symbols, and the meanings of words come to us from our experience with them.

Experience with words may be direct: seeing or hearing the word in the presence of what it means. It may be so simple a thing as a label which names an object or a label which directs us what to do. For example, we open a parcel post package and, sure enough, the bits of broken glass tell us the meaning of "Fragile."

Experience with words may be indirect. That is, our first experience with a word may occur in the presence of other words which illuminate it. This is the means by which the five-year-old TV watcher learns a meaning for *forecast*. It is the means by which most of us learn new words and new meanings for old words. We do not normally consult the dictionary for meanings of words simply because there isn't time or there isn't a dictionary readily available.

It is most important to keep in the mind the two kinds of vocabulary growth just noted. We learn new words as our personal experience grows and as the experience and knowledge in our society expands. But also old familiar words grow in richness for us as we acquire new meanings for them. Implicit in this remark is the basic fact about our language: most words have more than one meaning and frequently-used words appear to have the greatest number of meanings. In addition, the common words are combined in idioms—phrases which have a meaning you cannot get by adding the meanings of the separate words. The same sort of meaning increment occurs in the figurative use of words as found in newspaper headlines and buried metaphor: "Hogs firm, steers yield, lambs weak."

These then are the kinds of meaning that we deal with in vocabulary development: new words, new meanings for old words, idioms, and figures of speech.

We have recently had striking confirmation of the relationship of meaning and experience in the study of children from culturally deprived environments. These children have been limited in two ways. They have been limited in the things, the people, and the events they have encountered. They have been limited in access to spoken and printed words.

In New York City and elsewhere, plans for preschool centers call for guided trips outside the block or two in which the child has lived and experience with realia so simple as knives, forks, dishes, and books. Plans are also in the making for providing books to be read from, to be handled, and looked at. This is of the utmost importance because in millions of American homes the printed word has no validity.

Recently, the press noted a study at the University of Chicago on the vocabulary range of adults in conversation. I am not sure what the study proves, but what it reported was that the S's under observation limited 80 percent of their remarks to some 400 words.

This sounds shattering, but the finding really obscures the truth. The point is that everyone has several different kinds of vocabulary: at very minimum a speaking vocabulary, a listening vocabulary, and a reading vocabulary. The truth is that there is no simple device by which we can measure the true extent of any one of these vocabularies.

The press report of the study noted that the professors had compiled a list of the 3300 most frequently used English words and went on to say, "And it may prove a valuable aid in writing children's books." I sincerely hope it will not be used in this way, for there is no surer means of crippling a child's development than to limit his experience to the 3300 most frequently used words.

The aim of vocabulary development is not the acquisition of 3300 or 33,000 words. The proper goal is word power: the power to deal with new words when first encountered and new meanings for old words as they appear in differing contexts. We have a teaching imperative: we must show children the means by which we acquire words and meanings. We must give them insight into context clues and context interpretation.

It is time to dispel the mythology about words and meanings. We should put to rest the following misinterpretations:

1. That a large speaking vocabulary is valuable in itself or valuable as an index to anything else.
2. That some English words are harder than others. In point of fact, if any words are hard to deal with, a case could be made that words such as *true, loyal, honor, justice* are hardest.
3. That it is possible to measure the extent of anyone's vocabulary.

The controlling factor is the factor of experience. If we provide adequate experience either directly or through context, and if we give the child significant insight into the nature of words and meanings, we will have given him a word power without limit.

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2. Listening: The Neglected Dimension of the Reading Program

THOMAS G. DEVINE

NOW THAT the linguists have begun again to make listening a respectable component of the language arts program, it may be an opportune time to recall the fact that, as teachers of reading, we have never fully exploited the values of direct instruction in listening skills. To be sure, listening skills deserve to be taught as important skills in their own right. The fact that most of the information coming to our students comes in through the ears is justification enough for planned, sequential programs in listening. However, a listening program may be justified on other grounds as well. Each of the familiar skills in reading has a counterpart in listening, and, there is reason to believe, our instruction in the listening skills reinforces our teaching of reading skills. The teaching of such listening skills as "recognizing a speaker's main ideas" and "identifying a speaker's transitions" seems to be directly related to the teaching of such reading skills as "recognizing a writer's main ideas" and "identifying transitional elements in an article." By teaching related reading and listening skills together, we not only affect an economy of teaching time and effort, we also may teach both kinds of skills more effectively.

One example of how certain related skills in listening and reading may be developed in conjunction can be seen in the following description of a ninth-grade program in critical listening-critical reading.

After selecting five critical listening-critical reading skills (recognizing bias, evaluating sources of information, distinguishing fact from opinion, recognizing inferences, and distinguishing between report and emotive language), a series of ten tape-recorded lessons designed to promote growth in these skills was prepared. In each of the twenty-minute lessons, students listened to political speeches, radio and television commercials, and discussions of controversial issues—all taped directly from radio or television. At the time these lessons were being prepared, a political campaign was being "waged" in the Boston area; many speeches and discussions were recorded and then edited so that only material pertinent to the lessons was included. To supplement such "real" material, dramatizations were made in which (1) a school committee heard arguments for and against the twelve-month school year, (2) an insurance examiner questioned witnesses to an automobile collision, (3) a high-school student discussed the merits of a particular used car with the dealer, a mechanic, and several friends.

In all ten lessons the "real" material and the dramatizations were introduced, explained, and discussed by a teacher-narrator who also gave three or four critical listening exercises at the end of each lesson. To insure that students responded as attentively as possible, a Response

Booklet was prepared and duplicated. In the Booklet students reacted to what they heard, commented upon certain items in the lessons, and gave their answers to the listening exercises. The entire series concluded with a teacher-made critical listening test, also on tape, which attempted to measure growth in the five skills taught in the lessons.

Each individual lesson was followed by a related lesson in critical reading. For example, after students had responded to the taped lesson in distinguishing fact from opinion, they examined duplicated passages from magazines and newspapers and were helped in distinguishing printed facts from printed opinions. After they had been introduced to the listening skill "recognizing a speaker's inferences," they were given practice in recognizing a writer's inferences.

The results of this particular classroom program seem to indicate that instruction in critical reading skills becomes more effective when attention is focused on the listening dimension of reading. Students seem to learn reading skills more efficiently when these skills are taught in conjunction with their corresponding listening skills. There is reason to believe that, as reading teachers, we might explore further the possibilities of exploiting reading's neglected dimension: listening.

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2. Promoting Critical Thinking

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MANY apt definitions of critical thinking are to be found in the literature of reading and thinking. The one accepted for the purpose of this discussion is Russell's definition[1] which describes critical thinking as "the examination of some idea or product in the light of some norm or standard."

The need to teach students to examine ideas and products in the light of norms and standards has always been important, but there is an urgency about it today that cannot be denied. The entire population is being bombarded with ideas and products that demand evaluation.

New ideas, new products, and different points of view will continue to emerge, and the need to evaluate them will increase with the rapidity of change in our society. Before the students in our schools become the lawmakers in the country, either as leaders or as voters for leaders, they must be taught to examine critically what they see, hear, feel, read, and think.

The Role of the Teacher

The school is probably the only agency that can help students to build up critical thinking abilities gradually. While most of them do not learn to master critical thinking by themselves, almost all of them have the ability to think critically. Even the preschool child who hears mother say on the telephone that father is out, when father is sitting in the living room, thinks critically; he evaluates mother's statement in the light of what he knows to be true. Situations arising daily in school should be utilized to foster the development of that ability. Students should be encouraged to question ideas and products, and teachers should make a deliberate effort to organize their teaching procedures in such a way as to demand a high level of interpretation. The natural curiosity and eagerness to learn that children bring to school should be nurtured and maintained with students as they learn to search out and discover for themselves facts and truth. The process of searching and discovery is more important than that which is discovered, and emphasis should be placed on the process of solving problems, rather than on the answers to problems.

The Place of the Reading Program

Since the time in schools is still largely devoted to the use of different reading materials for various purposes, these materials should serve as the foundation upon which to build thinking skills. When those conducting the reading program recognize reading as a thinking process, not just an accumulation of mechanical skills, regular opportunities to promote thinking are provided. Critical thinking, like critical reading, is not to be taught and acquired at any particular level or with any particular material. It should be part of a developmental, sequential, and continuous reading program, in which the emphasis is placed not only on word recognition and literal comprehension, but on the higher levels of comprehension such as interpreting implied ideas, identifying the author's purpose, making judgments, reading not only between the lines but beyond the lines.

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[1] David Russell, *Children's Thinking*. New York: Ginn and Co., 1956.

Such a reading program is based upon a recognition of the fact that language is not only an instrument of expression, but also an instrument of thought. Jepson[2] says:

> The connection between thought and language is necessarily close. Until a thought is translated into language it remains vague, nebulous and indeterminate. Language crystallizes it and gives it form and substance. Thus language is an indispensable aid to clear thinking; the very process of having to put our thoughts into speech or writing and the effort it entails in discovering adequate expression for them are of themselves thought clarifiers.

Barriers to Critical Thinking

Language can, however, be one of the major barriers to critical thinking. It is sometimes used to conceal or disguise thought rather than to clarify it, and the glib use of words and terms is frequently mistaken for an accurate knowledge of their meanings and implications. Critical thinking requires an extensive vocabulary and a sensitivity to the subtle meanings of words. The clear and precise use of words is important in the thinking process, and students need to be kept constantly aware of this fact.

Language is not the only barrier to be overcome in promoting critical thinking. Intellectual laziness, in varying degrees, exists among students as well as among adults. Some find it easier to follow the line of least resistance, agreeing with accepted opinions rather than challenging them. The result is blind conformity. Unfortunately, the school program frequently requires only the recall of facts, and does not require that the student put forth effort to compare a variety of authoritative sources before accepting opinions or arriving at conclusions. This practice encourages intellectual laziness and tends to promote the notion that all that is said or written is true. Often, when the complaint is heard that students do not think, close examination of the situation reveals the fact that opportunities for thinking have not been provided.

Many people are so influenced by the society in which they live, that almost unconsciously they develop prejudices about certain issues, usually religious, racial, or class issues. They become so involved emotionally that they cannot be objective. Students must learn to recognize these prejudices in themselves as well as in others and be willing to modify their beliefs in the light of the facts.

Overcoming the Barriers to Critical Thinking

The reading program that recognizes the true nature of language and its fundamental importance in the educative process provides opportunities from the beginning for students to enrich their vocabularies, to use words precisely, and to clarify their thinking as they listen, speak, read, and write. Since there can never be much critical thinking if students are not involved in a lively sharing of ideas, they must be encouraged to discuss what is said or written. From guided discussion emerge hitherto unrecognized problems that establish purposes for further reading, thinking, and discussion. This process leads to a general clarification of issues. Students learn to modify their ideas, to accept or reject the ideas of others, to recognize prejudice in themselves as well as in others, and to sense a need for more knowledge of the subject under discussion. Obviously, you cannot be intelligently critical if you know nothing about the subject. As the teacher listens to, and guides the discussion, she identifies gaps in language, knowledge, and experience that need to be filled in at a later time.

While the reading provides the foundation upon which to build critical thinking, it should be the function of the entire school program to promote it. This is especially true at the junior high school level, where the increasing amount of content material requires language and concept development peculiar to each subject and suggests a shift from emphasis on facts to a greater emphasis on the student's understanding.

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[2] R. W. Jepson, *Clear Thinking.* New York: Longman's Green, 1953.

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Critical Thinking in the Total Curriculum

Fortunately, the richness of content furnishes abundant opportunity for developing habits of critical thinking with respect to every area of the curriculum. Obviously, in mathematics and science, the student can, and must, be encouraged to develop adequate facility with the language of both, if he is to think in either language.

In social studies, critical thinking can be encouraged if the student is asked to collect information from a variety of authoritative sources, selects information relevant to the particular topic, organizes it, and presents a report that is evaluated before it is accepted.

Through reading and discussing literary materials, students can learn to identify, and think about, the motives of the characters, the drives influencing their behavior, and the emotions that affect their actions and decisions. Young people can be helped in this way to achieve the objectivity essential for true critical thinking.

Since newspapers are important factors in the life of the community, students at the junior high level need to become aware of the responsibilities and function of the press. The manner of presentation as well as the presentation itself should be considered. In addition, the editorial policy should be recognized, and both the writers and the readers for whom their writing is intended should be identified. Students should also become interested in why a paper selects certain news items for coverage. A paper that is anti-communist, for example, may take this view because of some religious principle or because of particular political interests.

It is not enough, however, to help students to discover and evaluate ideas in all their subject areas and environment. Every effort must be made to teach them to formulate logical principles and to apply these principles to an understanding of new situations. Such formulations are, of course, highly sophisticated mental operations, and the ability to perform them comes only through unremitting practice.

Summary

Critical thinking is the evaluation of some ideas or product in the light of some norm or standard. It requires an inquiring attitude, knowledge of the subject, application of methods of analysis, and action in the light of the analysis. The foundation upon which to build critical thinking is a language-oriented reading program. The promotion of critical thinking should, however, be the function of the total school, and it can be since there are opportunities in every area of the curriculum for students to practice thinking critically. Let us not be guilty of failing to take advantage of these opportunities.

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3. Helping Junior High School Students Get to the Heart of Their Reading Matter

SISTER MARY JAMES, S.C.L.

CHALLENGED by difficult textbooks and by a multiplicity of reference materials, the junior high school student must be able to get to the heart of his reading materials as rapidly as possible if he is to be successful in his school work. Provided that he is already in possession of the fundamental skills of reading, he can be further aided by factors which facilitate work in any field of endeavor. Such facilitating factors include: (1) a familiarity with the area under study; (2) a clear concept of the total task to be done; (3)

knowledge of the materials to be used; and (4) skill in the use of techniques to be employed.

For the student, familiarity with the area under study means background knowledge—having at his command the skills and information which bring him up to date with his current lesson, whether that be mathematics, science, English composition, literature, or a foreign language.

A clear concept of the total job to be done in any current year requires that the student know at the beginning of the year, as specifically as possible, how the goals of the current year's school work are to differ from those of former years.

Knowledge of materials for the junior high school student means knowledge of reading materials—words: their meanings, structure, and functions. Meaning, to some extent, is taken care of through the vocabulary study which should precede the study of a chapter, unit, or any new phase of work. In the English class, however, more has to be done. Besides mastering the vocabulary related to the literary selections studied during the year, the students should be continuously developing a deeper understanding of their native language through the study of denotation of words as obtained by a knowledge of prefixes, suffixes, and root words; through a study of connotation by the use of speeches, advertisements or any means which illustrate the power of connotation. Included in word study should come an examination and knowledge of the functions of words as expressions of units of thought in sentences and paragraphs. What constitutes the skeleton of a sentence; how an author leads his reader from idea to idea; and the subordination of one idea to another—all are matters too important to be left to intuition since they are the very means by which a student gains the knowledge aimed at in the goals of his school work.

Techniques to be employed are determined by the nature of the subject being studied; and since they differ from subject to subject, they become the responsibility of the individual subject matter teacher. For instance, some common study techniques in the content areas concern the study of a chapter and the forming of summaries or abstracts of chapters. A very common study technique, used to aid students is the SQ3R Method of Study. The formula stands for the words, Survey, Question, Read, Recite, Review. In the first step, the students are directed to form the survey by noting the title of the chapter, and the divisions of the chapter into topics and subtopics; secondly, they are told to turn each topic or subtopics into a question; thirdly, to read to find the answers to the questions which they have formulated; next to try to recite the answers to themselves; and finally, if they find they cannot recite, to review in order to be ready to recite in class.

Another suggestion for those who wish to read to remember or to recite in class is the habit of forming abstracts of one's reading. A student is told to form a skeleton of each important sentence in each paragraph by choosing the important words—the subject, verb, and object—and forming a sentence of them. When this has been done for each important sentence, the student is directed to telescope those sentences into one, thus forming an abstract of the entire paragraph, then of the entire chapter, article or book.

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C. JUNIOR HIGH LEVEL

1. Teaching Reference Study Skills

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If the elementary school has done its job well, each student will have developed as much skill as his capabilities permit. This means that abilities of seventh grade students will vary widely. Therefore, a first task for a secondary teacher is to find out what each student already can do.

There are three main ways of discovering abilities of students: (1) published tests, (2) teacher-made tests, (3) observation. Examination of each student's responses to questions on published tests can give an estimate of ability in a few skills. Teacher-made tests can be used to examine skills not included by published tests. If these tests are built from materials students will study, they also will relate more closely to what students are learning. Observation of reference study habits is also important. To know how is not enough. A teacher observes to see that students use what they know.

Four categories of reference study skills will be discussed. Those concerned with (1) location, (2) evaluation, (3) organization, and (4) usage. Each category consists of an array of skills. Only a few will be discussed.

Locating Information

Two skills and one understanding seem basic to successful location of information. The skills are using alphabetical order and translating language. If reinforced by usage and reteaching, alphabetical order should give no insurmountable trouble. However, the index entry that differs from a word in a student's mind may cause difficulty. Facility in translating language seems dependent on verbal mental ability. Less verbal students will need much practice with this.

The basic understanding is: awareness of kinds of information found in different reference materials. If students fail to understand about this, they flounder, waste time, and eventually, stop searching.

In a book. Ability to preview a book is essential for efficient location of information. "Preview" implies more than a hurried glance at words and pages. It means careful, thoughtful—yes, and slow—consideration of selected portions of a book: title, table of contents, index, summaries, setting, and bold-faced headings. Not many secondary students are intellectually dedicated enough to read a book to find three pages of pertinent discussion. Each student needs to know how to preview a book.

In a dictionary. Children are told continually, "If you don't know a word, look it up in a dictionary." Yet, when dictionary habits of eighth grade students in a large metropolitan suburb were studied, some long-suspected information was uncovered.* As a group, these 424 eighth graders achieved well above national averages for Grade 8 in reading, language, and verbal intelligence. For five consecutive days teachers asked them to record words for which they had used the dictionary during the preceeding twenty-four hours. A record sheet was provided. Students were also asked to check their reason or reasons for looking up each word. Students were directed to exclude words assigned by a teacher or included in an exercise. They were to include only words they had decided to look up.

It was thought the number of words would be abnormally high because daily recording would focus students' attention on dictionary use and because of some students finding more words to please their teacher. However, during the five-day period 46.5 per cent of the students recorded no words.

Of the 53.5 per cent who did record words, girls recorded almost twice as many as boys. Over two-thirds of the entries were consulted for meaning. These were mostly words that occur frequently in college reading materials. About thirty per cent of the entries were consulted for spelling. Much less frequent reasons for consulting the dictionary were: to discover usage, to help with pronunciation, and to learn about the origin of words.

Teacher responsibility does not stop with correction of a successful dictionary drill. Functional situations must be provided which will encourage students to discover information for themselves.

In an index. To use various bibliographical and informational indexes efficiently, students must learn a minimum of three things: (1) the kinds of information each index contains, (2) how to discover the arrangement of an index, and (3) how to interpret abbreviations used in an index.

In a library. For effective use of a library, students must also understand at least three things. They must know that the librarian is there to help them find what they want. They must know how to discover the floor plan. As their needs become more specific in the intermediate grades and beyond, they must continue to develop ability in reading library codes: shelf labels, book numbers, card catalog. Students don't need to memorize these codes. (Forgetting or use of a different library can lead to disaster.) They need to learn how to discover meaning from these aids.

Evaluating Information

Information that has been located must be evaluated, organized, and used. Effective evaluation implies objective reading on both sides of a question. It requires suspended judgment. This is hard. Only a mature, thinking adult can give students the perspective and encouragement they need to do this.

Evaluation also implies close scrutiny

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*An unpublished study conducted by the writer and eighth grade English teachers of Montclair (N. J.) in Spring, 1964.

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of the truth of information that has been uncovered. To be "true" this information must be relevant. Its idea or thesis must develop logically. It is important to know whether it comes from a primary or secondary source. Students need to challenge the "truth" of information they have located.

Competent researchers also check the reliability of their information. They check copyright date, writer's authority, what other sources say on this point. They judge information objectively.

Before organizing information, a final test is applied. This is a test for adequacy. If the test uncovers information that is lacking, the researcher needs to go back to locate it. Many students have not lived long enough to discover adequacy easily. However, teacher questions and class discussion will sometimes help them see there is more information they must examine.

Organizing Information

Ideas that have been located and evaluated must be organized if they are to prove useful. Organizing ideas involves seeing relationships, classifying, arranging, and summarizing. It leads to drawing conclusions and making inferences. If the organization has been faulty, the conclusions and inferences can be inaccurate.

Teachers can give practice with some common ways of classifying ideas: time order; climax; cause-effects, or effect-causes; enumeration; comparison-contrast. Class discussion of ways to organize material for a class research project is another way that may help a student to perfect this group of skills.

Using Information

If location, evaluation, and organization of information is to have any real importance, the information should be used in some way. Few are so self-sufficient that they do these things for the enjoyment of the process without the end result.

Information may be applied in any of several ways. It may be communicated to someone else in talk or in writing. It may form the basis for self-formulated directions to do something. It may change a person's attitudes, tastes, or beliefs. But it must be applied if self-satisfaction is to result.

If self-satisfaction for students hasn't resulted, what insurance has the teacher that, when the need arises, students will use reference study skills independently?

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5. Perceptual and Conceptual Style Related to Reading

HELEN M. ROBINSON

AS EARLY as the beginning of this century, psychologists investigating visual perception postulated two types of observers which they described as objective and subjective or part and whole

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perceivers. Children generally were considered to belong to the whole-perceiver group. Later research, however, revealed that there was variation in an individual's approach to perceiving objects at different times.

In 1914, Smith[1] found that when children viewed pictures tachistoscopically, some analyzed the details while others saw the pictures as wholes. Summarizing many studies of visual perception, Vernon concluded that "different modes of perceiving may be partly a function of maturity, partly of social and educational background; but may also have some temperamental basis."[2]

Goins[3] used a Picture Squares Test and reported that the distribution tended to be bimodal. She noted that children who progressed rapidly on the test appeared to see the nine pictures within a square as a group while those who progressed slowly looked at each picture in the square separately until a pair could be matched. The test correlated .381 with a reading achievement test at the end of grade one.

Using the Rorschach Test, Gann[4] found that poor readers were preoccupied with unimportant details. Solomon[5] reported a similar tendency among boys who were poor readers, while successful readers overemphasized the theoretical and abstract aspects of the Rorschach.

Thus, a number of studies at the primary grade level lead one to suspect that some children tend to be "whole" perceivers while others tend to perceive "parts." Undoubtedly the majority of pupils change their patterns according to the task, the "set" or motives. The nature of the studies also raises an interesting question concerning the etiology of the differences in perceptual types; that is, are differences due to personality as suggested by the Rorschach, or due to experience in the preschool years. Perhaps, as Vernon suggested, a developmental pattern may be found.

In a recent study of 448 pupils made by the writer,[6] the coefficient of correlation between the Picture Squares Test and of first-grade scores on the Metropolitan Reading Achievement Test was .411; by the end of Grade two, the coefficient was .329 and at the end of grade three, .221. The decrease in coefficients may reflect maturation, or a change in the demands of the reading process.

Middle Grade Level

The Raven Coloured Progressive Matrices which, according to Raven, requires the use of perceptual and eductive abilities was used by Wickens.[7] At grade four, this test differentiated 25 good from 25 poor readers with statistical significance ($P = .02$). Whether largely perceptual or conceptual, the differences on this test were clearly demonstrated.

Examining the remainder of Wickens' data dealing with abstracting ability in the light of the whole-part relationships, a marked and highly significant difference ($p < .05$) between the good and poor readers was found between the Word-Grouping and Figure-Grouping subtests of the Primary Abilities Test, Elementary Form AH. In this instance too, the unification of the parts into a whole, with attendant relationships was exceedingly difficult for poor readers.

At the grade four level also, Jay[8] used 35 reading tasks, correlated the scores and completed a factor analysis of the intercorrelation matrix. She concluded that classifying words may be an essential task in reading. While some children could read the words, still they had trouble classifying them, and in proportion to their decreasing reading scores.

At the fourth-grade level, there is evidence of a tendency toward differences in the ability of selected pupils to deal with wholes and parts, again closely related to competence in reading.

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[1] Frank Smith. "An Experimental Investigation of Perception," *British Journal of Psychology,* VI (February, 1914), pp. 321-62.

[2] M. D. Vernon. *A Further Study of Visual Perception.* London: Cambridge University Press, 1952, p. 250.

[3] Jean Turner Goins. *Visual Perceptual Abilities and Early Reading Progress.* Supplementary Educational Monographs, No. 87. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1958, p. 63.

[4] Edith Gann. *Reading Difficulty and Personality Organization.* New York: King's Crown Press, 1945.

[5] Ruth H. Solomon. "Personality Adjustment to Reading Success and Failure," in *Clinical Studies in Reading II* (Helen M. Robinson, Ed.) Supplementary Educational Monographs, No. 77. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1953, p. 81.

[6] Unpublished.

[7] Alice R. Wickens. "The Ability of Good and Poor Readers to Abstract." Unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, University of Chicago, 1963.

[8] Edith Sherman Jay. "A Factor Study of Reading Tasks." Unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, University of Chicago, 1950.

High School Level

A study of 30 high school seniors made by Smith[9] reveals some distinct differences in the way students read. She asked each student to read one selection to secure the details (parts) and a parallel selection to obtain the general impression (whole). Questions dealing with both aspects were asked after the reading of each selection was completed. Thereafter, all students were ranked from 1-30 based on the answers to the questions in four categories. Some of these students consistently read the selections for details, others for general impression, regardless of the purpose proposed by the investigator. A good reader, for example, ranked second and fifth on questions of general impression, but seventeenth and twenty-sixth on questions requiring details. In contrast, another good reader ranked first and seventh in answering detail questions, but nineteenth and twenty-fourth in obtaining general impressions. Among the thirty students, eight consistently favored reading for details or for general impression while the remainder varied their approaches.

College Level

An intensive study of 39 college freshmen made by Swain[10] was concerned with the verbalized process of answering questions about materials read during the experiment. Although her sample was small, it included good, average, and poor readers. One of the dimensions she adopted to examine her protocols was called analysis of language (when the language form seems to be the crucial element) and restructuring of meanings (when the meaning stimulated by the language is the chief consideration). She found that analysis of language typically characterized a few of the poor and average readers. In contrast, restructuring of meanings was used by good readers, especially in answering questions which were more difficult, and was used less by poor readers. While this classification resembles some aspects of whole-part relationships, the nature of the classification is not as clear as it was in the previous studies.

On 74 perceptual tests administered to fast and slow readers at the college freshman level, Thurstone[11] found that the fast readers were quicker than the slow readers in identifying dotted outlines. Likewise, fast readers were form-dominant and made quicker decisions on the color-form sorting test. In contrast, the fast readers were slow in discovering hidden digits and had a greater number of failures than the slow readers.

Summary

Vernon and others have postulated perceptual styles emphasizing whole or part perception. Several recent studies of visual perception among children in the primary grades have supported the conclusion that whole perceivers tend to learn to read more effectively than do part-perceivers. However, the possibility that the pattern persists into the conceptual domain is suggested by a few investigations of reading beyond the level at which perception is the dominant aspect of reading. While most students appear to be flexible and able to move from wholes to parts as their purpose dictates, it is possible that others at the extremes of the dichotomy rely heavily on a single perceptual and conceptual style. Only longitudinal studies over a number of years can test this hypothesis. Should it be confirmed, then obviously rigorous analysis of the etiology of each type will suggest the possibilities of change, and/or the necessity for adapting instructional methods to individual learning styles.

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[9] Helen K. Smith. "Research in Reading for Different Purposes," in *Changing Concepts of Reading Instruction* (J. Allen Figurel, Ed.). New York: Scholastic Magazines, 1961, pp. 119-22.

[10] Emeliza Swain. "Conscious Thought Processes Used in the Interpretation of Reading Materials." Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, Department of Education, University of Chicago, 1953.

[11] L. L. Thurstone. *A Factorial Study of Perception.* Psychometric Monographs, No. 4. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1944.

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1. Reading for Depth

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ONE OF the most urgent educational needs of young people at the present time is that of learning to read in greater depth. One of the most urgent needs of teachers is that of recognizing depth-reading processes and providing for their development. Concern for these needs constitutes the substance of this paper.

First, let us consider the need for recognizing the different categories of meaning-getting processes in reading. To do this we must break down the big blanket term of *comprehension*. This word entered our reading vocabulary back in the early twenties when we first began to give attention to meanings. We have used it indiscriminatively ever since and in my opinion this omnibus term has stood in the way of developing true depth in reading. There are different kinds of comprehension which in turn call for the use of different mental processes. Depth reading cannot be developed by teaching "comprehension" as a lump sum.

The different categories of meaning-getting processes as I see them are: (1) literal comprehension, (2) interpretation, and (3) critical reading.

Literal comprehension names the skill of getting the primary, direct, literal meaning of a word, idea or sentence in context. There is no depth in this kind of reading. It is the lowest rung in the meaning-getting ladder, yet it is the one on

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which teachers of the past have given the most practice.

On the other hand *interpretation* probes for greater depth. It is concerned with supplying meanings not directly stated in text. In interpretation the reader must think back of the mere symbols and infer meanings not directly apparent in the word symbols, themselves.

The third growth area is *critical reading,* the one with which we are directly concerned in this program. Many people apply the term critical reading to any kind of careful, discriminative reading. For skill development purposes, I like to single out critical reading as a special kind of reading requiring special teaching techniques.

Critical reading, as I see it, is the third level in the hierarchy of reading-for-meaning skills. It involves the literal comprehension and the interpretation skills, but it goes further than either of these in that the reader evaluates, and passes personal judgment on the quality, value, accuracy and truthfulness of what is read.

This distinction is appropriate in terms of the meaning of the word *critical,* an adjective derived from the noun *critic* which in turn has as one of its foreign sources the Greek word *krinein* meaning "to judge, discern."

One dictionary definition of *critical* is "exercising or involving careful judgment; exact; nicely judicious as a critical examination." Another dictionary defines critical as "to judge with severity."

Critic is defined as "one who expresses a reasoned opinion . . . on any matter . . involving a judgment of its value, truth or righteousness . . ." *Criticism* is defined as "A critical observation or judgment;" and criticize is defined thus, "to examine and judge as a critic."

In consideration of the meaning of critical it would appear that we are stretching things a bit too far when we lump together practically all of the skills that make use of thinking processes in reading under the present popular term of "Critical Reading." For the sake of having clear-cut objectives in teaching, might it be advantageous to designate critical reading as the kind of reading done when personal judgment and evaluation are involved.

There is a grave need at this time for us to develop this higher skill of critical reading. In fact this need is so urgent that it should be considered as a national obligation. The American citizen of today needs to be fully acquainted with the happenings in his country but the time has passed in which he can be smugly concerned alone with events which take place in the United States. He is involved with the whole world and the whole world is involved with him. World events are having, will continue for a long time to have, tremendous impacts on us in America personally, socially and politically.

From whence does the most of this information come and who interprets it? For all too many people the major source of national and world affairs is TV or radio, and this news is either presented as a list of headlines without interpretation; or if interpretation is made it is translated to us in the light of the individual belief, judgment or interest of the commentator. TV and radio are powerful molders of opinion because people accept their capsule statements and comments without acquainting themselves with the background necessary in interpreting the facts and arriving at their own conclusions.

It is true that the business or professional man may snatch a paper at the news-stand to read on his way to or from work or perhaps he and his family may read a daily newspaper left on the doorstep of his home. In either case he will come in contact with world news in more detail than given by TV or radio, but again let us ask who interprets this world news for him? It is the reporter or editor who writes the account of a happening; it is he who gives his viewpoint concerning the event and its implications. We need desperately at this moment in our history to develop individuals who will read about an important event in two or three newspapers and magazines, comparing the information given, sifting the wheat from the chaff, arriving at their own conclusions, and sensing implications for themselves as American citizens.

I was in an eighth grade classroom recently when the teacher asked the students what had happened in Vietnam the day before. All of them did know what had happened but discussion was meager. I asked, "How many heard about this event over TV? How many over radio? How many read about it in a newspaper?" The most of them had heard about it over TV, two or three over radio. None had read about it in a newspaper. No wonder they couldn't discuss the situation. They had no background of detail or variance of opinion. One of the most urgent things that we can do is to get students to read widely and critically about current happenings.

Propaganda is another facet for critical reading consideration. Propaganda has been defined as "any intentional attempt to persuade persons to accept a point of view or to take a certain line of action." With so many people these days trying to change our thinking and to influence our behavior through printed material, we as teachers should be acquainted with the dangers of propaganda and should teach our students to recognize some of the major techniques used by the propagandists in political speeches, advertisements, editorials, cartoons, billboard announcements; in fact wherever it is found in a world that is now teeming with propaganda intentions.

Students in the junior high school have reached a degree of mental maturity which makes it possible for them to do careful critical reading. Let's give them abundant practice in using this important skill.

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2. Clinical Assessment of Reading Skills

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IN MOST clinical situations, there would be evaluation of at least four aspects of the reading process—oral reading, silent reading, applied or study-type skills and word analysis abilities. In this presentation I shall examine critically the reasons commonly offered for the manner in which clinical evaluation is undertaken in these four aspects of reading.

Oral Reading

Many reading clinicians offer one or several of the following reasons for administering an oral reading test as part of their diagnosis: (1) the measures of rate and comprehension enable us to identify the proper instructional level; (2) the pupil's errors, habits of word attack, and dependence upon context for word recognition may be detected; (3) the presence and possible influence of any speech difficulties may be evaluated; (4) the tendency to word-by-word reading, lack of phrasing and expression will be observed; and (5) any peculiarities of postural adjustment in the reading act will be manifest. I would raise the question whether most or, indeed, any of these common diagnostic goals are achieved economically or with reliability among junior high school pupils by sampling oral reading.

Let us first consider the types of oral reading samples taken in pursuit of these purposes, and then later examine whether the goals themselves are realistic. Many reading authorities recommend the use of an informal inventory or teacher-constructed oral reading sample. The standards suggested for this type of testing are usually borrowed from the original suggestions of Betts, who hypothesized that the average pupil should read orally with 95 per cent of word recognition accuracy and at least 75 per cent of comprehension. These standards are obviously arbitrary, unrealistic, and, as some recent research shows,[1] in drastic need of revision. Moreover, informal inventories are based upon the completely unwarranted assumption that a testing instrument built by a novice is equal or superior to one assembled by a test specialist. How much validity can we expect from a test composed of paragraphs of unknown difficulty arranged at unknown intervals on a scale that begins and ends at points of unknown value? How much validity may we expect from comprehension questions which have never been analyzed for discrimination between high and low scorers, or for equivalence in difficulty; nor pretested to determine the influence of general intelligence or reading background? How much credence can we give an inventory that gives no means of comparing a pupil's performances with any known group of peers (other than the few pupils on whom the teacher tries out the test)?

Fortunately for those who would cling to these crude, homemade instruments, there are available two recent standardized oral reading tests, differing slightly in rationale to permit a choice, but representing a number of years of careful construction and research.[2, 3] These are not perfect instruments, as we shall point out in a moment, but they destroy the last possible justification for informal inventories.

Perhaps we have discussed sufficiently the nature of the instruments used for oral reading tests and should proceed to the purposes or information they are supposed to yield. You will recall that we noted the identification of instructional level as the primary goal. An oral reading test will function in this fashion perhaps only at primary levels where there is little difference in these aspects of reading. Above primary levels, oral and silent reading are not only different but even antagonistic processes, for marked development in one medium is often achieved only at the expense of the other. In proof of this, we may simply point out that in order to become a rapid, fluent, silent reader the pupil must learn to read selectively, omitting words or larger portions in the attempt to read for ideas, rather than to recognize words. This pattern is antithetical to that necessary for good oral reading and if practiced in the latter becomes a matter of great teacher concern. The contrast in the two media is also apparent in terms of the value of each for pupil comprehension. Most research indicates that silent reading is a superior approach in achieving comprehension. In these two ways, and many others, oral and silent reading diverge in different directions and the prediction of one from the other is fraught with error. The measures of rate and comprehension in an oral reading test have little relationship to these same skills in a silent reading act. I suggest that at the junior high school level an oral reading test fails to identify the correct level of instructional materials except in an oral reading program (which most would consider quite inappropriate at this level).

The second purpose of an oral reading test is supposed to be the identification of pupil errors, habits of word attack and dependence upon context. Actually, any clear picture of these tendencies is clouded by, first, the lack of any reliable standards of performance, and, secondly, by the fact that all three are interacting during sustained reading. Even if we knew how many of each type of error to expect, and how to identify and interpret each type, we never would know to what extent the pattern is determined by the influence of contextual clues. For example, is each error apparently involving a vowel substitution actually that, as in reading *track* for *truck* in, "there was a running down the dirt road." Or is this really a word substitution based on context? In our opinion, the only practical way of gaining some ideas about the student's phonic and word attack skills is through a list of isolated real and nonsense words or, better yet, through a comprehensive group test[4] as an initial screening followed by individual administration of the list. For analysis of some of the subskills in word attack, the list may also be used to construct tasks in sound substitution (as truck for duck), blending real or nonsense syllables into wholes, naming of vowels, consonants, blends, etc. presented auditorily, giving the sounds of the same combinations when presented visually, dividing polysyllables properly and indicating and interpreting common roots and affixes and accents.

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[1] John Emerson Daniel. "The Effectiveness of Various Procedures in Reading Level Placement," *Elementary English*, 39 (October 1962), pp. 590-600.

[2] William S. Gray. Gray Oral Reading Test. Edited by Helen M. Robinson. Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill, 1963.

[3] George D. Spache. Diagnostic Reading Scales. Monterey, California: California Test Bureau, 1963.

[4] Committee on Diagnostic Reading Tests, *Word Attack Test, Silent*. Mountain Home, North Carolina: The Committee.

A third purpose often used to justify an oral reading test is the opportunity to observe and evaluate the pupil's difficulties with pitch, volume, inflection, stammering, and substitutions. I submit that such evaluation requires professional skills not possessed by the average reading clinician. About the best that I can do, after thirty years of clinical experience, is decide whether or not to refer the pupil to a speech diagnostician. I know of no way of determining whether the speech errors have any effect upon the silent reading process, and the referral is solely in the hope of enlisting professional help which may aid the pupil's oral communication, not his reading ability. I am inclined to believe that, at the junior high school level, the nature or degree of voice or articulatory disorder has no relationship to the pupil's silent reading achievement. Even in cases of cerebral palsy and aphasia, in our experiences, the residual speech impairment is not a significant factor in the development of silent reading comprehension. Since the same observation of a pupil's speech may be made in the course of any interview, there appears to be no good reason to use an oral reading test for this purpose.

A fourth reason for an oral reading test is the presumptive opportunity to observe tendencies to word-by-word reading, or lack of proper phrasing or expression. We are being subjected currently to a barrage of linguistic claims that "efficient reading is impossible without notation of typical speech melodies" or that we must "help the child apply his innate understanding of the spoken language to the representations of its patterns in the written language," or "the written language is but a symbolization of the spoken language, and it must be taught by primary teachers."[5] I respectfully submit that the term "word-by-word" is meaningless, for no one visually observes or fixates phrases or other such groups of words, since practically all reading, except perhaps skimming or scanning, occurs in spans of less than two words. What we are really observing in the oral reading situation is a tendency to violate the normal melodic patterns of English sentences, by giving a rising juncture (inflection) to almost every word.

I further submit that, however unnatural or defective in intonation the reading, the tendency has little or no relationship to comprehension. In effect, this contradicts the linguists' stress upon the importance of auditory memories for intonation in reading comprehension. For the moment, the simple fact that silent reading is taught successfully to persons with faulty or complete lack of auditory memories for English intonation, such as the congenitally deaf, the hard-of-hearing, the bilingual and those defective in auditory discrimination, tends to support the rejection of the linguistic claims. There is further support for this view, in my opinion, in the fact that in the days prior to the present oral-aural approach to foreign languages, many of us learned to read another language without much oral or auditory experience and continue to be able to read that language long after we have forgotten what little we once knew about its pronunciation. I suggest that the use of an oral reading test to discover the reader's tendencies to observe phrasing, expression or intonation yields nothing of significance in understanding his reading difficulties.

The fifth and final avowed purpose of an oral reading test is that of observing any peculiarities of postural behavior during the reading act. This observation can obviously be made during any silent reading situation. Unfortunately, here again the simple act of observation is not diagnostic. Just what may it mean if the pupil cocks his head or the book, or holds the material too close or too far away? What may we assume regarding the effects of faulty postural adjustment? The usual oral reading test seldom reveals any insights regarding the pupil's binocular vision, instability of fusion, or tendencies to suppression. Such information may be obtained solely from a test devised for this specific purpose.[6]

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[5] Martin Stevens, "Intonation in the Teaching of Reading," *Elementary English*, 42 (March 1965), pp. 232, 235 and 234.

Silent Reading

Many diagnosticians employ one or several silent reading tests at the junior high school. Space does not permit more than a rapid examination of this testing and its apparent purposes. The primary goal in most clinics seems to be the identification of the particular silent reading skills in which the pupil is deficient. We suggest that this goal is unrealistic, however easily it lends itself to what appears to be a remedial effort. The twenty-five or thirty skills identified by the labels in numerous silent reading tests have never been shown to be more than abstract terms. There is no evidence that each is a distinct skill, that they form a hierarchy of interdependent skills, nor that in performing in each the individual employs a distinct pattern of reading or thinking.

In our opinion, diagnostic testing of silent reading should be intended to reveal the pupil's relative comprehension in different types of materials, under conditions of reading for different purposes, and his flexibility of approach and of rate, in responding to these fields and conditions. The tests employed should evaluate the ability to vary rate and comprehension in contrasting subjects, and to vary reading procedures in accordance with the structured or perceived purpose.

Until recently few standardized instruments were available for these types of evaluation, although most reading authorities acknowledged their significance. Now two such tests for secondary pupils have been constructed.[7, 8]

It is interesting to note that the validity of pupils' claims regarding their tendencies to alter their patterns of reading in accordance with the purpose for reading has been examined and confirmed in both these tests by eye-movement photography. Although it may not prove feasible to use this diagnostic approach when large numbers of pupils are concerned, it probably should be an integral part of an individual diagnosis, in our opinion. The Reading Eye Camera is the only objective means of confirming what we think we observe in tests of rate and comprehension, of flexibility of reading pattern, of tendencies in word attack and directionality in word recognition and sustained reading.

I have not attempted to cover here the diagnostic efforts which would explore the junior high school pupil's abilities in content field vocabulary, graphic and illustrative materials, library skills, note-taking, summarizing, or any of a number of study skills. Knowledge of these would be essential to planning any type of reading program at this level, but this knowledge could probably be most economically obtained by group and individual tests and observations during the early stages of the program. Here we have tried to cover only the essential diagnostic facts to be obtained in a relatively brief clinical assessment of reading skills.

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[6] George D. Spache. Binocular Reading Test. Meadville, Penn.: Keystone View Co., 1955.

[7] Arthur S. McDonald and Sister M. Alodia. Reading Versatility Test. Huntington, New York: Educational Development Laboratories, 1961.

[8] Helen K. Smith. "The Development of Evaluation Instruments for Purposeful Reading," *Journal of Reading*, 8 (October 1964), pp. 17-24.

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4. Analysis of High School "Basal Reading Materials:" Preliminary Efforts

EMERY P. BLIESMER

WHILE an acquaintance with a variety of reading materials used at secondary levels had been given this investigator through his field of work, previous experiences in working with materials had indicated a degree of indefiniteness and vagueness with regard to just what constitutes "basal reading materials" at the high school level. It was therefore decided that a desirable first step in the analysis of materials might be an attempt to have publishers indicate just what was meant by "basal readers" for high school. Consequently, a letter was sent to the central office of each of fourteen different publishers. It was explained in the letter that this investigator was "presently involved in an analysis of junior and senior high school basal reading materials," that he would "like to know which of the materials you publish are ones which you consider being basal reading materials for secondary schools," and that he "would appreciate receiving, if possible, a complimentary set of the latest editions or revisions of such materials." A definition of neither "high school basal reading materials" nor "junior and senior high school" was given in the letter. However, it was assumed that "junior high" would mean, in general, Grades 7-9 and "senior high" would mean Grades 10-12.

The various types of responses received from the companies within a period of five weeks after the letter was sent were as follows (with the number of companies responding in each manner being indicated in parentheses):

1. Letter sent by central office in direct reply to investigator's letter (5).
2. Representative called on, or otherwise contacted, investigator (5).
3. Specific reading materials sent to investigator, with or without letter from company (8).
4. No response to letter (4).
5. Company representative asked what was meant by "basal" (1).
6. Specific materials mentioned in letters (5).
7. Specific materials definitely identified as "basic" or "basal reading" texts in letters (2).
8. Stated in letter that did not publish secondary basal reading materials, although company had materials widely used at junior-senior high level (1).

The following general types of materials were sent by publishers or were referred to as having been sent fairly recently:

1. Literature series for Grades 7-12 (2).

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2. The books for Grades 7 and 8 in elementary supplementary basal reading series (1).
3. The extension, for Grades 7 and 8, of an elementary basal reading series (4).
4. A reading series specifically for junior high (Grades 7-9) levels and not the continuation of an elementary series (3).
5. A reading skill development book or series for junior and/or senior high levels, with levels at which these might be used being flexible (3).
6. A modified literature series, with accompanying supplementary reading skills practice materials or workbooks (1).

A further search and a more detailed analysis of "basal reading materials" are planned as future steps. However, previous familiarity with materials and somewhat cursory analysis of materials obtained in response to the initial letter indicate, in general, that the following types of reading materials are presently available:

1. Literature series with or without accompanying books of reading practice materials.
2. Extension of elementary basal or supplementary basal reading series through Grades 7 and 8.
3. Junior high anthologies with reading skill exercises accompanying selections.
4. Senior high anthologies with reading skill practice exercises accompanying selections.
5. A combination of literary and basic reading skill development materials (represented by a number of the previous types).

The "preliminary efforts" which have been described appear to warrant a few tentative "conclusions" and comments, as follows:

1. The term "high school or secondary basal reading materials" is still a rather vague and indefinite one and is in need of delineating and clarifying.
2. The amount of "basal reading" material available for senior high school levels appears to be considerably limited. (The great majority of materials sent or referred to were for junior high levels.)
3. The extensions through Grades 7 and 8 of elementary basal reading series, while mentioned by a number of representatives, do not appear to be regarded seriously as "secondary basal reading material."
4. There appears to be some disagreement between companies and teachers as to whether or not certain materials used at secondary levels are "basal reading materials." (A number of materials available and used in schools were not referred to by some publishers.)
5. Publishing companies tend, in general, to be somewhat noncommittal or vague with regard to what is meant by "basal" and/or whether or not they have such materials.

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10. Methods of Teaching Reading in the Junior High School

LAWRENCE W. CARRILLO

Before we had junior high schools, there was no question about it—reading was a regular part of the curriculum in the seventh and eighth grades. Then, because the new combination of grades developed a secondary school orientation and organization, somehow it was assumed that the basic skills of reading were taught in the first six grades. Obviously, this was an incorrect assumption; not only do we know that there will be pupils in junior high reading at the second or third grade level (as well as tenth and eleventh), but we know also that the skill of reading is never completely taught nor completely learned at any age. Witness the college reading courses, even at such selective universities as Harvard; the reading classes at the Air University; and the teaching of special skills of reading to Congressmen and to businessmen. Furthermore, children are younger now at each grade placement than they were previously, and this means that the necessary maturity for the full acquisition of reading skill may be lacking, especially among the boys.

Reading instruction, then, is essential in junior high school. It may appear as developmental, corrective, or remedial reading, and should appear as all three, considering the range of individual differences. The teaching of reading is the responsibility of every teacher, no matter what his specialization or specific job in the school.

References for Teachers and Administrators

Methods will vary, depending upon the class, the level of student ability, the personality and approach of the teacher, the materials used, and other factors. In gen-

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eral, however, methods in junior high are little different from those used in the intermediate grades. In recent years, there has been a tendency for administrators in junior high school to hire elementary-trained teachers for seventh and eighth grade classes in developmental reading, remedial reading, and "core" or "basic" classes. The reasons for this are mainly: (1) the teaching of reading is necessary, and (2) secondary school teachers usually have neither the training nor the experience to handle the job.

There are now a number of books designed to help secondary teachers become more able to teach reading. They all give you much more than can any presentation of this brevity. For examples, see: Jewett, *Improving Reading in the Junior High School;* Strang and Bracken, *Making Better Readers;* Strang, McCullough and Traxler, *The Improvement of Reading;* Weiss, *Reading in the Secondary School;* Bamman, Hogan, and Greene, *Reading Instruction in the Secondary School.* Other helpful materials are appearing rapidly, as Sheldon's chapter in the Sixtieth N.S.S.E. Yearbook or Carrillo's *Reading Extension Service Units.*

Most of these references emphasize the necessity for total-school participation in reading improvement, and give suggestions for the teaching of reading in content classes as well as English and reading classes. This emphasis is essential—reading permeates all classes, including shop and homemaking, and without attention from all instructors of all subjects, real progress is unlikely.

Methods

A number of "pure" methods of teaching reading have been used at various times:

- experience method
- sight methods, or "look and say" methods
    sight word method
    word-phrase method
    sentence-story method
- word attack methods
    phonics methods
    structural analysis methods
- alphabet-spelling method
- oral reading method
- non-oral method
- audio-visual method
- kinesthetic method
- individualized reading method
- multilevel materials method

Only two or three of these fifteen are now being advocated as "pure" methods. Even these have relatively few champions, though the few seem to be highly vocal. Most teachers today use a combination of many of these methods. There seems to be little question that a method which combines many of these, rather than any separate method, is more likely to help more children learn to read. There are great differences in learning rate, in the kinds of thinking, in which stimuli make the greatest or longest-lasting impression, and in every other aspect of learning among individuals. Therefore, it is only reasonable to attempt to reach more students by including parts of many methods.

Basal Readers

Basal readers are probably the best avenue for instructing *both* the pupils and the teacher in reading. The typical modern series of basal readers is actually a *program,* not merely a graded series of books. The stories in the series provide the framework through which various reading skills are introduced and maintained. A well planned series leaves no skill development to chance. They are planned around centers of interest, themes, or units. Skills are introduced gradually at a time when efficient learning should be possible, and each succeeding book presents new and more difficult levels of skill while maintaining those previously introduced. Vocabulary is controlled so that the load is not too great. But the greatest boon is the guide. Any teacher who is beginning to teach reading must first realize that the stories are only a vehicle for teaching the skills of reading, not a complete end in themselves. The suggestions given in the guide tell *specifically* how to teach all of the various skills of reading applicable to that story and to the present stage of development of the learner. A broad combination of methods is used.

Basals used in the junior high should probably be a continuation of those used in reading for the first six grades, though this is not always essential for those achieving above grade level. But certainly those children who have not developed rapidly in reading need a very careful and controlled approach, such as that which the basals provide, especially if the teacher is rather inexperienced in the teaching of reading. Furthermore, the guide will show lists of books and other materials which are useful in extending knowledge and in stimulating interests.

Workbooks to accompany basal readers are available. It is likely that the best workbook to purchase is the one which supplements the reader and follows the same developmental pattern. Work done in any workbook, however, may be dangerous, since repetition of mistakes needs to be avoided. Consequently, the work should be checked often—preferably *as it is being done*—so that mistakes are caught and not taught. A workbook, used properly, makes more work for the teacher, not less. It should always be used under constant teacher supervision.

Multilevel Materials

In the last few years, multilevel materials, such as the *SRA Reading Laboratories,* have made quite an impression in secondary school reading instruction. These boxes of reading materials provide for the large spread of reading abilities in a classroom, make it possible for each pupil to work at his own level but still have the entire group working together, have a teacher's guide that can be followed by inexperienced teachers, and create a great deal of pupil interest as well as reading skill.

There is some danger, however, that the teacher who employs this material will feel that he has given a complete reading program by using this method, whereas in reality there are some portions of a complete program which are not present.

Basal readers or anthologies *plus* the *Reading Laboratory* will combine to make a better program than either can by itself. Here again, the combination method holds more promise. Both should lead to reading in supplementary and trade books. Oral reading and group discussion may come from the basal. Individual development at the pace of that individual may evolve from the use of the *Laboratory.*

Other multilevel materials, such as those now appearing in paperbacks, for example, the *Scholastic Literature Units,* might also be employed. Although many of the multilevel materials are designed for a "teaching unit," as a teacher gains experience he may be able to combine and spread out these materials, rather than concentrating too heavily on one and then dropping it to go to another.

Methods and Materials

There are many different materials of all kinds available. The few examples given here have been chosen to present the concept that methods and materials are inseparable. What you have to work with determines, to a great extent, how you will work.

Of course, a creative teacher can improvise with very little, but with large and various classes, time for creativity is at a premium. Also, the same teacher will show better results with better materials. Materials, then, should be chosen with great care, since they affect both pupil and teacher, and tend to determine method.

Summary

No single type of material or particular method has the complete answer to the teaching of reading. The best programs show:

1. A wealth of varied materials
2. Combination methods, varying with pupil level, need, and problem
3. Experienced and well-trained teachers, teaching skills as well as content
4. All-school participation in the reading program

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2. Effective Utilization of Basal Materials at the Junior High School Level

THOMAS E. CULLITON, JR.

IN AN AVERAGE eighth grade English class, we are likely to find a range of eight or more grades in reading ability. Lazar[1] reported that among more than 50,000 eighth grade pupils, only fourteen per cent were reading at the eighth grade level. Eight per cent had less than a fifth grade reading ability and almost seven per cent had a twelfth grade reading ability. The rest of the pupils were distributed between the two extremes. A poor reader in a junior high school is jeopardized in all areas of his curriculum where reading ability is essential to success.

The reading program in the junior high school should serve the needs of its various students. The program should help the remedial reader improve in the essential skills as well as help the more able reader master and develop the skills at a higher level. To meet the needs of the junior high school pupils, to give the pupils satisfactory experiences with which they can develop, maintain, and improve their reading skills, we must provide a wide variety of interesting reading materials at all levels of readability.

An examination of the basal reading series that continue their programs into the junior high school indicates that less emphasis is placed on the teacher's manuals at the seventh and eighth grade levels. The seventh and eighth grade materials include a wide range of literary items, biographical materials, folktales, science, and poetry. The basal readers actually evolve into a collection of articles and stories chosen to parallel the pupil's educational attainment as well as to stimulate new interests and to challenge him. This is considered worthwhile; unfortunately, however, the material available often determines the amount and degree of reading instruction which is offered.

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[1] May Lazar, (ed.). *The Retarded Reader in the Junior High School.* New York: Board of Education, City of New York, Bureau of Educational Research, 1952.

If we accept the findings of Lazar[2] then it becomes obvious that before any instruction is begun, a well-organized and well-planned testing program must be implemented. Before instruction is begun, the teacher must first identify the essential reading skills which he would like all pupils to possess. While setting up the criteria for identifying the skills, the teacher should keep in mind that he expects the junior high pupil to be able to read, understand, judge, and make use of the material read.

If we approach the idea of teaching reading with the concept that we should test before we teach, we will have some idea of the needs of the pupils. The purpose of this testing is to identify the students in need of special instruction or educational assistance and, more specifically, to determine the areas in which the pupils are weak. The teacher should identify the kinds of mistakes the child makes as well as ascertain why the errors were made. We must be concerned with scoring the test as well as interpreting the results of the test.

Sound pupil evaluation, planning, and teaching can be accomplished through an approach that takes many factors into account. A test score reflects only one feature or one aspect of the problem. This must be viewed and interpreted in relation to the total picture in order to be effective. Other aspects would include such things as teacher observation, checklists, interest inventories, cumulative records, health records, etc.

Once we have obtained information on the reading characteristics of the pupils, we have the very important tasks of analyzing or interpreting the material and then evaluating the information. After these tasks have been accomplished, the all important task of implementation of the reading program that will provide for the individual needs of the pupils still faces the teacher.

After we have determined the class needs and have identified the students' abilities and disabilities, the task of the teacher is quite clear. He must understand why he is teaching, and the relationship of what he is teaching to the total reading program. The teacher must utilize all of the tools of modern knowledge in teaching the pupil to read.

When one thinks of the development of the skills basic to the reading task, he quite naturally thinks of the basal reader. Basal reading is defined in the *Dictionary of Education*[3] as "reading aimed at the systematic development of reading ability by means of a series of books or other materials especially suitable for each successive stage of reading development." It seems quite natural, then, to view basal materials as a series of textbooks; however, any reading material used to help a child achieve the desired skills is basal reading material. This might include textbooks, tradebooks, newspapers, and any other devices dealing with the development and implementation of the reading skills and processes.

Effective utilization of basal materials is, in the final analysis, an intelligent approach to the total reading problem as revealed through the techniques of both formal and informal diagnosis. The extent to which a reading program is successful is largely dependent upon the extent to which a thorough and continuous diagnosis is a part of that program.

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[2] *Ibid*

[3] Carter V. Good (ed.). *Dictionary of Education.* New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1959.

evelopment of New
to Teach Creative
ritical Thinking

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zabeth M. Drews
igan State University

e task which faces me is a
one which involves condens-
years of research and almost

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that many separate studies into a brief overview.* I feel my undertaking is not unlike that faced by a friend of mine, a gifted nine-year old, who had decided to report on World War II to his fifth grade classmates. I gasped, "But how?" He replied:

> For the boys I must tell about the blood and thunder, the espionage and the sabotage, and for the girls—they won't know there had been a World War II—I'll have to give them the facts of the case. And my task is to give *rhythm and continuity to it all.*

I plan to discuss critical and creative thinking—what they mean to me and how new media can be used to foster these patterns of thought.

There are several ways of looking at creativity—as a product, as a process, or by studying creative individuals. Some of the studies of adult creativity look at products, such as the picture that is painted, music that is composed, or the scientific invention.

An approach that is much more rewarding in our work with young people is to look at creativity as a process. Eric Fromm talks about it as a search—working towards the ultimate, you might say. In science we *search* for truth; in art we *search* for beauty, and in counseling or in human relationships we *search* for a true understanding, for empathy, for love. We could also say that creativity is an attitude toward life, a way of seeing the world with fresh eyes. It is the vision that Blake must have had in mind when he wrote, "A heaven in a wild flower, an ocean in a grain of sand."

Although creativity is valued by almost everyone, too many assume that the creative attitude is easy to attain and hold. This is not true. Many, or even most, children have this special zest, the spirit that could be called creativity, but it does not survive the rigors of school and of growing up. These attitudes, interests, and values make creative individuals different from most of us. In fact, they often act or respond in ways that most would consider unusual or extreme. They tend to be aesthetic in their interests and intuitively aware—they have the poetic view of things. They combine feminine and masculine patterns of expression and thought. Most are quiet, introvertive and even asocial, and a surprising number have been or are rebellious. Contradictory and complex, they are difficult to label. They can have their heads in the clouds but both feet firmly on the ground.

Motivation is also at a higher level. As adults they "function to the hilt" and sustain an excitement about learning over long periods of time or throughout their lives. And their interest is in different things than is true with many people. They more often than not think in philosophical terms, searching for ultimates and reaching decisions in many ways, including closely reasoned logic and intuitive leaps.

Creative youngsters are also predisposed to deal with the profound and philosophical, to see issues complexly and in terms of alternatives. An eighth grade class chose to construct pages for a flexible textbook which would emphasize the human condition. One question which they posed was, "whither mankind?" They collected and shared with each other a variety of facts and theories from newspaper clippings, magazine articles, and books to support three alternatives:

1. Man could press a button and destroy the world.
2. Man could use the resources of this great and beautiful world carelessly and without plan, with the result that life would become barren and meager instead of rich and abundant.
3. Man could get himself in hand, think carefully and critically and take responsibility for his future. In such a case, he might evolve to heights of intellectual and spiritual development rarely seen at present.

The boys and girls had met the requirements of creative and critical thinking. They found a topic which interested them, they read widely and clustered their ideas into three propositions, and finally they discussed the issue of man's future at length. There was no final solution, but students did decide that some futures were better than others and that each one of them was responsible for what would happen in the years ahead.

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*During part of this time I was Director of Psychological Services in the Lansing Public Schools where I set up special programs for the children who were at odds with the curriculum—either finding school to easy or too hard. As a professor at Michigan State University, I have continued to spend at least half of my time in the schools doing research on school learning.

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The project "Whither Mankind?" was a small one, a few weeks in duration and involving only one class. The point is that on a minor or a major scale, it is possible to foster clear, logical, and original thinking. The new media used in this class were current printed materials which students assembled and shared.

It seems clear that such an endeavor could be successful only if both creative and critical thinking is encouraged by the teacher. Mankind's future cannot be put into tidy packages, to be listed, memorized, and recited back to the teacher verbatim. Critical thinking is not learning the answers in the back of the book. It is quite a different species from rote memory. Critical thinking, and the frame of mind that goes with it, is also different from creative thinking. I would say that the two are blood relatives, but certainly no closer than "kissing cousins." My preferred definition of critical thinking is a broad one, similar to that used by David Russell in his book, *Children's Thinking*. Russell held that we use too limited a construct if we see such thought as merely critical—that is, fault-finding and little more. The purpose of critical thinking is to solve problems. I would amend this definition further to read—*important problems.*

The pattern of creative and critical thinking to which I allude encompasses what John Gardner has referred to as excellence. In his book Gardner asserts that the need is for excellence in a context of concern for all. This means that an individual must not only assume responsibility for his own life but that he must develop a conscience about, and take action for, the human cause. This attitude, which Allport calls, "extension of self," is somewhat easier for brighter students to develop and practice since they usually are not as overwhelmed by the enormity of the task of solving their own problems as are the average and slow. Many of their basic needs for recognition and acceptance are met and thus they have the psychic freedom to help others or to be concerned about the state of the world.

Some young children think critically about the human condition and express a deep concern. Several years ago I was speaking in Minneapolis. After my presentation, a member of the guidance division of the State Department of Public Instruction told me about his small son:

> I was bathing the five-year-old and the following conversation took place. The little boy looked up and said, "Germ warfare is awfully dangerous, isn't it?" I had to agree that it was. He continued, "and the cobalt bomb could destroy almost everyone." Again I agreed. Then my son began to cry, saying, "Those people in Washington must be awfully stupid."

The Development of New Media

Beginning in 1954, I worked with teachers and administrators in the Lansing Public Schools who were eager to try out new patterns of teaching. We set up experimental seminars where the plan was to encourage critical and creative thinking. Generally, our plan was to allow students to read freely and choose their own focus. In other words, aspects of the program were much like individualized reading. However, we brought to this reading a number of patterns of organization. Students were expected to order their thoughts and present ideas to the class through verbal interchange as well as through written reports. Individuals would make presentations or small groups would have conversations before the class and through these involve all students. Topics which were independently selected and researched by the most able junior high school students in this program included such crucial issues and scholarly concerns as "Peacetime Uses of Atomic Energy," "A Comparison of Religious and Scientific Theories of Evolution," and "The Origins of Abstract Art." It was clear that these students wanted to understand the world and to feel that they were part of it.

Excited by these explorations—the use of material that went beyond the textbook and free discussions in what we have come to call the "conversational dialectic"—I was bold enough to report in an honors conference at my alma mater, the

University of Michigan, that we were indeed teaching "critical and creative thinking." As I said these magic words, a dean from Harvard looked at me coldly and said, "What you are doing cannot amount to much." I shriveled inside, gulped, and stopped talking to him, muttering to myself, "You can always tell a Harvard man but you cannot tell him much!" But I was curious, so I swallowed my pride and finally I said, "What do you mean?" He replied:

> You cannot teach critical thinking if you use the conventional curriculum and textbooks as a base, and simply "enrich." Textbooks have tunnel vision and present one point of view or they are bland and have no viewpoint. And "turning the kids loose" to find their own way will not do. They do not know how to explore the limits or find the alternatives. There is nothing for you to do but make your own materials if you want to teach thinking!

This was the challenge: to make materials (media) that would help us to accomplish our objectives. How could we teach junior high age students to think and to like the process; and what should they think about? The latter must come first. We had to choose our focus. Suddenly, it occurred to me that I personally felt that the great need was for people to develop more of their potential, to become what Abraham Maslow has called self-actualized. This has been an enduring interest for me since I read his book, *Motivation and Personality*, in 1954. A self-actualized person, by definition, is original and logical in thought as well as altruistic and dedicated. Surely we could help young people to develop and use their abilities more effectively. We could use the self as a major theme and help these young adolescents in their search for an identity. Was it not possible that they could grow to understand themselves better and thus come to feel more useful and effective in the world? Yet we were aware, as we searched, that there was no education which was designed to foster such critical and creative thought. And there was none with a primary aim of helping children to find themselves, to develop a sense of purpose in life, and—in fact—to "live a life."

The older patterns of education stressed either social or academic conformity, "getting along" or "getting ahead," or both. They were not designed to teach children how to think for themselves and to free them to explore in areas beyond the curriculum, nor did they emphasize that all must become ethically responsible. In other words, there was little effort to develop excellence as John Gardner has described this quality. As educators we say that our aim is to teach children "to think and to care," an objective Edgar Dale recommended long ago. We put such aims in our educational preambles, but we have not created the atmosphere, designed the materials, or allotted time in the schedule to do this. However, we know that if we do not take action, our words are empty—even dishonest—and by our inertia we, in effect, endorse the status quo.

Such thoughts gave us impetus to build a new program and to make and try out the media and methods that we thought would be effective. The program was to be an experimental ninth grade social studies course.* We decided to construct a series of films and a new kind of textbook to help children discover themselves and better understand the world. To aid students in self-discovery, we made the films of outstanding adults who already had a large measure of self-awareness and were, in addition, working creatively and responsibly in areas that required disciplined thought. One or several of these models might help a student understand himself and how he might fashion a meaningful life pattern. The course began, however, with an overview of the environment.

To help the students discover the world, we constructed an open-ended anthology, using the best ideas and the most crucial issues in our current periodicals and library-type materials. Our hope was to present the urgent social problems and the living culture of the world today. In these selections we had another opportunity to introduce contemporary heros and to give "the measure of man" grander and more noble dimensions than most mass media does. We turned the pages on the movie queen, the football hero and James Bond

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*Experimental and control classes met for an hour a day throughout a semester. There were approximately 120 in each of the two groups. Research was funded by NDEA, Title VII.

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and focused instead on Eleanor Roosevelt, Mahatma Gandhi, Martin Luther King, Robert Oppenheimer, Loren Eiseley, Helen Keller, and more than a hundred others of similar stature. Believing that both pattern and diversity are necessary for higher order thinking, we grouped the articles, the sketches, the reviews and the drawings into four worlds: the natural, the aesthetic, the technological, and the human.

But building a world did not stop with the four we proffered to each student in the multilithed text. Students took over at this point. Each became an editor, censor, and contributor to the book that was to bear his individual stamp. All were invited to write comments on any page, were given a brown envelope to deposit pages or even worlds they did not like, and we placed a stack of recent magazines in each classroom from which they could choose new articles to add to their books. In this way there was both structure and freedom. Each student could construct new worlds or his own version of utopia and he could add colors and pictures, poetry and prose of his own choice or making.

After six weeks of earth-moving and world-building, it was apparent to our able ninth graders that life was pretty complicated, and the odds against making sense out of it were overwhelming, to put it mildly. Perhaps no "man was master of his time," or could be. To bring in hope, reinstate courage, and perhaps kindle a sense of destiny, the ten "style of life" films were shown at this stage—after about two months of overview of the outer world. These portrayed men and women in command of the situation—who were shaping their lives as Robert White of Harvard suggests that psychologically healthy and mature individuals can do.

Our aim in this experimental program was to help young people think more creatively and critically and to develop a sense of ethical commitment. Experimental students tested higher than control students in these areas at the end of the study. We spent five years in building and testing new media and we now feel that, although this was a small beginning, we were going in the right direction and that we should continue in our efforts.

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2. Materials Needed for Individualization

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THIS DISCUSSION will not be a description of the workbook materials that are presently available with which to teach reading skills. Nor will it be a critical examination of programed learning materials or devices. These are available if you wish them. If you do, I recom-

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mend Yemema Seligson's incomparable list of 184 skill-building workbooks and like materials—all annotated (*12*). If Fry (*8*) has not described what you may think you need in the way of programed reading materials, may I advise you consult the Office of Education publication, *Programs '63* (*9*). Nor will I discuss here reading rate builders or other mechanical means of developing reading, principally because I believe the methods they employ violate the principles of individualization of instruction I will advocate. I will not comment on these costly machines because, secondly, I think they wrongly displace the critical materials of the individualized reading program in the junior high school, namely, books and related material—which I will call here the natural materials of reading.

Use Natural Materials

My thesis is that natural materials for teaching reading, if self-selected by students with teacher guidance so that they fit the reading needs and abilities of the individual student, will better release each student's human potenial than will the forced reading of assigned materials for the satisfaction of someone else's purposes. I contend further that when the student pursues objectives in reading to which he is personally committed that greater gains in skills development will result than is possible with the application of reading development kits or programs listed in the above references.

One Form of Individualized Reading

The individualized reading approach to which I refer can take at least two general forms. The first procedure would be to have the class choose freely any reading material they desire to read, and to read it at their own speeds and for their own purposes. The only requirement laid on this reading is that the reader must prepare himself to share what he reads with his classmates. As the class reads independently in this way the teacher holds conferences with as many individuals each day as is possible. During this conference time he checks on powers of word recognition as this is shown in oral reading, and on comprehension and appreciation of what was read as indicated in the student's responses to questions about the material. From this conference, and from the results of standardized test results, the teacher gains a general opinion at what difficulty of reading the individual can be successful. He then attempts to guide the student to more books at this level.

Those students who show they have not mastered the basic word analysis skills are instructed in these skills in *ad hoc* groups. Otherwise, during the independent reading each student decides as he reads in what way he will share what he has read with the other members of the class. This sharing is best done in smaller sub-groups of the total class, of course. The teacher provides for this purpose lists of ways that books can be shared, so that a variety of activities can be seen in the sharing period. The best source for ideas for this sharing period is *A Practical Guide to Individualized Reading* (*4*).

A Second Form of Individualized Reading

A second form of individualized reading that is commonly used comes through the use of reading materials grouped around common content themes such as those found in *Reading Ladders for Human Relations* (*3*). This sourcebook is a list of books that are seen to contribute to the solution of problems of concern to junior high students, e.g., "establishing more grownup relationships with their families, in finding more active roles in their peer groups, in accepting their developing physical selves. Other kinds of problems may be precipitated by community situations or family predicaments" (*3, 10*). For one problem (of six) given in *Reading Ladders for Human Relations,* "How It Feels to Grow Up," the books on the list can help give answers to many questions.

Deborah Elkins (*6*) also describes how this second form for an individualized reading program was put into effect in the seventh grade. It was decided that to have each child read from books, in the way pictured above in the first form for individualized reading, was too radical a change for teachers. So it was arranged that children would read around a common theme. This provided a structural framework for the teacher.

The teacher initiated the reading problem by reading aloud to set the theme, and through the use of audio-visual materials to create interest in it. The students were given a list of books from which to choose. Each child read a book of his own selection, around such themes as, "What We Learn from Our Families," "Careers," "Growing Up," and "Folklore." In their reading the class came to grapple with ideas, to think, to solve problems, and to take initiative rather than to just read an assignment.

In this process the development of reading skills was not overlooked. From their experience these teachers found, however, that the strengthening of the ability to use context clues was the first word recognition skill that should be emphasized, if such was necessary. This ensures that any individual who has not yet learned that reading can be a pleasureful experience can find enjoyment in reading before phonetic or structural word analysis is reviewed. Often partners were formed so that each student would have someone to refer to for help with a difficult word, or with whom to practice oral reading. When these partners read to each other the teacher "circulated around the room, listening, advising, noting progress, making comments of encouragement on the charts wherever this was warranted" (*6, 14*). That this program was effective was indicated by the finding that "improvement was well above expectations."

Avert Remedial Reading

I will repeat here a truth we sometimes stumble over in our efforts to find some short cut to reading development. This is that reading in a normal way is a better means by which to teach reading skills, to develop affection for reading and personal satisfactions with it, and to instill the practice of appealing to reading for answers to problems, than is isolated drill on artificial materials—no matter how ingeniously the latter are contrived. My proposition denies from the outset that the proper manner to teach reading in the junior high school (or in the grades that precede it) is to use an ability-grouping basal reader system which assigns its failures to "remedial" reading, which usually turns out to be more of the "basal" content, and then directs those still delinquent after this "remedy" to a "clinic" for an investigation of their purported reading "disease."

Advocates of individualized reading contend that if books were offered to students to meet their abilities and needs throughout the grades that this calculated escalation of the guidance function would be largely averted. So far we cannot say that we have really tested this assumption. We know that two out of every three elementary schools do not have a library that is necessary to accomplish this. And so we see an ever-expanding need for remedial and clinical measures. It is interesting at this point to note that in the schools of England and Scotland, which have been shown to develop higher levels of reading ability and wider ranges of reading ability than do the schools in the U. S., there is no general acceptance of a similar curriculum for all children. What is taught there will depend more on the individual teacher or the individual school, both of which have a higher degree of autonomy than is the case in the U. S. (7).

Books Are the Materials

If books are to be the essential materials for the teacher's attention in an individualized reading program he obviously must get to know them. This is far from easy, however. Books at the junior high level are coming off the presses in vastly increased numbers. The hardback juvenile book field is from all reports probably the fastest growing and the healthiest of all the types of literature published. Moreover, we have on hand a revolution in book publishing. The current edition of *Paperbound Books in Print* for February, 1965, listed 30,700 paperback books. In this catalog about 1500 of these titles are listed as books for juveniles and young adults. There are many other titles that are obviously suited for use in the secondary school under several other categories: cooking, crafts, drama, games, humor, reference, scientific, and travel. To assist the teacher to sort through this abundance of riches the *School Paperback Journal* (*11*) was launched as a monthly in October, 1964. To help further with this selection the National Education Association and the American Association of School Librarians have compiled a list of over 3,500 paperback books they feel are useful and available to students in the secondary school (*1*). The junior high teacher can select many appropriate titles from this reference. Some publishing companies now are devoted to the field of teenage paperback reading. Berkeley, for example, publishes over 180 titles. There are now over seventy *Tempo* books that come from Grossett and Dunlap.

Finding the Right Book for the Right Child

The planning of the teacher of individualized reading takes a radical turn from that necessary for ordinary teaching. He must first of all familiarize himself with as many books as is possible. This activity will replace the planning he previously did to find ways to interest the entire class in the next story in the anthology or basal reader. Thus his role as a specialist in children's literature will inevitably be enlarged. He will find it necessary to continually consult numerous reference sources for titles to meet the individual needs in his class: *Children's Catalog, Cumulative Book Index, Paperbound Books in Print,* and the ALA *Basic Book Collection for Junior High Schools.* He will become knowledgeable with special sources such as the "Junior Book Round Up," (*10*) *Good Books for Children,* (*5*) and *Reading Ladders for Human Relations.* To find books for retarded readers he will use *Good Reading for Poor Readers,* (*14*) the series of books for reluctant readers prepared by Yemema Seligson (*12*) and other sources (*2, 13, 16, 17*). He will consult sources for detailed descriptions of how an individualized reading program looks in action (*6, 15*).

Individualized Reading as the Alternative

To return to where we began this discussion, we, as teachers of reading, can depend on workbooks and other highly-organized, highly-controlled materials such as the reading textbooks, if we wish. The evidence presented here forces us to consider a reasonable alternative to this course, however. This is the teaching of reading with children's literature.

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2. Multi-Level Reading of the Novel

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THE THEME of this volume, "Reading and Inquiry," is a summation of the tenet that reading is one of the basic tools for developing an inquiring mind, a major educational goal. Each of us could cite examples of students who, once stirred to inquire, developed those critical and creative powers that are sought after in every classroom.

Too often have we become enmeshed in routine, concentrating upon curriculum, forgetting that we may quicken or stultify the desire to inquire. One of the answers to our problem of building a stimulating intellectual environment is so simple that for some it is a cliché—consider the individual.

In his 1962 Presidential Address at the NCTE Convention G. Robert Carlsen spoke in behalf of the inquiring approach:

> In English, I feel that we will progress only when we see that the ultimately important things to teach boys and girls are the processes of examination of language and literature rather than a sequence of factual conclusions arrived at by others who have examined them.

The past two school years I was part of an experiment that involved a laboratory approach to ninth-grade English, using team teaching. One of the purposes of our model was to determine more effective means of utilizing pupil-teacher time and materials. As a result we formulated the hypothesis that a multi-level approach to common learnings employing individualized and multi-level materials would achieve better results than heterogeneous grouping using one common set of materials.

The experiment consisted of sixty (60) students grouped into three sections according to achievement and needs. The sections were scheduled to meet on particular days in either a Guided Study Center or Recitation Center.

In the Guided Study Center the students either individually or in groups studied basic skills, planned for the Recitation Center, investigated individual problems, conferred with instructor, or carried out other related activities. Materials for this center included programmed material for such areas as reading, grammar, and spelling; textbooks with a range of difficulty; and audio-visual aids such as commercial tapes, filmstrips, tachistoscopic devices, and records.

The Recitation Center was used for reporting, discussing, evaluating, and, in general, demonstrating skills and knowledge. As much as possible the instructor left the actual discussing to the students. The amount of direction usually depended upon the section and the topic of work.

Planning for Reading of Novel

When planning began for the novel unit, the culminating project for the year, we asked what plan would permit us to continue to stimulate creative and critical thinking at each level of achievement. Initially, we instructors had concurred that inquiring minds were being developed, that we were not teaching a particular text. It was then decided to use a multi-level approach, varying the depth and scope according to ability, similar to that of the short story and poetry units.

Believing that knowing how to read is the foundation of learning, we felt that attention should be directed toward how to read a novel as well as structure and form. Also our department outline urged that the enjoyment of reading not be lost during the study of the novel, that the unit be an introductory one.

The first step was determining the scope and content of the unit. Then a student guide was planned which was prefaced with a general vocabulary for study of the novel. Next, sections were added to develop understanding of plot, characterization, setting, theme and purpose. To stimulate thought and guide the student to think of the novel as a conscious work of art that integrates these elements in varying degrees, a questioning approach was used.

We cautioned the students, however, not to think of the novel as having a set formula. Some of the students at this point could readily give examples of authors who used unique form or emphasized one element. In short, we did not present the class with a formula and say, "Find all these ingredients in your novel." Instead our major goal was developing the student's ability to determine to what extent the author uses ideas, people, and places to accomplish his purpose or develop theme.

Selecting the Novels

Upon completing the outline, we discussed the possible books. Finally the answer became obvious: let the student select for himself. We knew, however, that the instructors must provide some guidance in order to avoid poor choices.

After discussing the reading patterns and the developmental tasks of this age group, we listed categories based upon types or topics of interest. Some of the major ones were romantic, adventure, science fiction, mystery, psychological, man and war, and man and his decisions. Then numerous titles were assigned to each category. In some instances a book might appear more than once.

Also it was decided to limit certain topics to a particular section. For example, the superior students were urged to choose from the psychological novel. This decision was based upon previous reading choices which indicated that this group was ready for reading that required depth of thought and did not rely solely upon external action for excitement.

This listing was then presented to the class for discussion. They were free to move from one small group to another discussing the categories. Still trying to balance teacher judgment and student planning we guided their thinking toward small groups of three or more reading the same novel. This goal was readily achieved as enthusiasm spread for certain titles. After selections were made, paperbound copies were obtained from our bookstore.

Introducing the Plan of Work

The next phase was introduction of the study guide. A notebook was required, and the student was asked to answer after each reading session any of the questions concerned with structure and style that pertained to his choice. At a later time he could modify any of his statements. In addition we asked the student to record his own comments and impressions. In essence we were asking the class to become active readers by such activities as agreeing, disagreeing, noting beauty of style, becoming irked, commenting upon ideas, sharing moments of enjoyment, and noting interesting vocabulary. Further they were urged to utilize the paperback by making marginal comments and notes. Again the depth to which the student would be asked to react would depend upon his level of achievement.

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Next, we formed our study groups. The initial grouping of three sections was maintained; however, these were not the sole ones. Since another of our goals was evaluation of flexible grouping, sections were formed around topics, types, particular titles, and so forth. Thus a schedule was devised for heterogeneous and homogeneous ability groups.

Getting the Right Start

We then proceeded to a series of lessons with the theme "Getting the Right Start." While one homogeneous group was in the Recitation Center discussing this point, the other two sections were listening to tapes and preparing for the lesson.

The lesson was designed to illustrate the importance of the opening chapter of a novel. The class considered such items as setting, point of view, initial incident, author's method of beginning action, foreshadowing, possible symbols, and devices used to interest reader. We asked the groups, though, not to make this analysis mechanical, but to evaluate, look for clues to intent of author, and suspend final judgment until a more complete pattern was formed. To complete this portion of the unit, each student wrote a brief ending for his book and a two sentence description of the major character. These were filed away for later comparison to determine to what extent first opinions might change.

Later heterogeneous groups met and discussed various techniques of beginning a novel. Once the first student spoke, the instructor was no longer needed. Each one had a contribution and in some of the sections stimulating discussion ensued. It was exciting listening to the critical and interpretive statements. Also there was a variety of novels discussed. In one section consisting of fourteen students, eight different selections, having a wide range of difficulty, were considered. At the close of these sessions, the groups agreed that the novel is a distinct form which can vary according to such variables as author, purpose, and period.

Reading at Individual Rates

The class was then free to proceed at their own rates. At intervals the scheduled study groups met to discuss structure, style, or content. Also certain days were set aside for reading in the Guided Study Center. During this time instructors held conferences which could be requested by either student or instructor. Some of the strengths of the multi-level method were recognized during these conferences.

For example, one boy who was reading *Red Badge of Courage* asked to talk about the developing nature motif. He was very impressed with Crane's manner of contrasting the carnage of battle and serene nature. The instructors asked what would have happened had we discussed the point within a regular classroom. It was conjectured how many would have realized this as being an integral part of the theme. As others talked about their books, it could be seen that each student was reading for significance at his level. When possible, other points were suggested that might be explored.

Keeping our planning flexible, we frequently conducted informal group discussions during the Guided Study periods or brought together students interested in similar topics or problems. Often these informal, unplanned sessions were as successful as the structured ones.

Within the Recitation Center certain positive values were also noted. The groups were able to develop points and ideas without a lecture from the instructor. Also it seemed that in the heterogeneous groups the less able gained insights from the more capable.

Reacting to Novel

After reading was completed the class began a writing project. Again a multi-level approach was used.

The most capable students were required to develop a thesis statement and in a paper with a minimum of five paragraphs discuss how their novel illustrated or refuted this idea. The middle group could choose this project or discuss how the author used a particular element or elements to develop theme or purpose. Those within the lower ranges were asked to write about their reaction to one element. Also the length was set accordingly for the two latter groups. It was asked that each student cite page numbers for their major conclusions, using a footnote.

Then again we went into our former plan of grouping for exchange of ideas and critical opinions. Each student could move at his own speed and use all available resources.

Conclusion

With the final reading of the papers we felt that this plan was superior at least for this group. Who can deny the excitement of a paper from a superior student who analyzes the four major characters in *Anna Karenina* in respect to their adjustment to life? Equally impressive was the one from an average student who saw *Frankenstein* not as just a horror tale but as a story of a pathetic figure created by man and then rejected because he was not like man. Even some of the less able did commendable papers in which they discussed such items as, the believability of a character.

The next year we tried the same plan with revisions. Again we were pleased. We did not find this plan to be a sure method for all, but we feel that we were more successful than had we attempted a one-novel approach.

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B. JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

1. Reading Among the Language Arts

Charles M. Brown

What attitudes, knowledge, and skills are required to operate in an act of communication, a desire to send a message or to receive one?

What is the best possible way for the junior high school pupil to increase his language skills?

Fascinating developments are occurring in the study of how children learn, and how they learn to learn which may well point the way. One example is Suchman's inquiry training (1).

The heart of Suchman's idea is the process by which the pupils learn the principles involved in a science lesson and the means by which they learn that process. A problem episode film involving a scientific principle is shown to the pupils. Thereupon the pupils are free to question the instructor whose role is to respond with a "yes" or "no." (Suchman now asks the instructor to play a somewhat more structuring role.) After many questions and much searching of reference material the principle is discovered. All this time, the tape recorder has preserved the process by which the students have arrived at the principle. Playing back the tape gives the pupils the opportunity to analyze and improve upon the process. Thus, they not only have discovered the principle but have increased their discovery skill for use in later discovery of other principles. They have learned a most valuable process.

A second example of this fascinating development is the work of Taba (2) in analyzing and developing teaching strategies that will facilitate the development of thought processes for the better formation of concepts and generalizations and for skill in applying those generalizations to explain new phenomena.

The key word in both studies is discovery—discovery of the key concepts and generalizations and discovery of ways of thinking. Can this method be applied in the area of the language arts?

It might be possible to lead children to state and to accept valid reasons for wanting to improve their penmanship. It might further be possible to help them to grade examples of good, bad, and indifferent penmanship. This might lead to an analysis of what makes the good product superior to the bad product. And it might even be possible to lead children to a discovery of what each of them needs to do in order to move toward the goal of improved handwriting.

In the area of composition a similar approach might be made. Some studies already indicate that there are much more profitable approaches to teaching composition skills than the formal study of grammar. Some of these approaches are somewhat similar to the direction indicated by Suchman and Taba. Comparative analyses of different quality compositions might permit the inductive generalization of principles of good composition. Such generalizations will be much more meaningful to the pupils, will be remembered longer, and will have greater transfer value.

Formal grammar was just mentioned with a negative connotation. While most research since the turn of the century has indicated that the formal study of grammar has little transfer value, does this mean that there is no value to a knowledge of the constants of our language? Perhaps if the structure of the language were approached from a discovery angle—with the pupils and teacher acting the roles of budding linguists, scientific students of the language—the long sought values might appear.

Other areas of the language arts, such as literary taste and appreciation and critical reading ability, might be developed the same way.

Two factors, however, must be considered. The first, very likely, is an order in which the steps should be taken. Elementary teachers of reading have long thought of this order in terms of reading readiness. Because this term has been misunderstood and misrepresented in some quarters, a new term might be in order. The term now proposed is ***linguistic propaedeutics.*** The word linguistic is included in the term to show that all of language is involved; propaedeutics — the preparatory study needed for later success in any field —gives the idea the appearance of learned dignity which it deserves.

The second factor returns us to our starting point. It is the interrelated nature of all language and the tremendous importance of reading as a tool in all learning. Surely the study of language must have a unity. The study of language is, as the study of anything complex, seriously limited without proficient reading skills.

The study of language thus envisioned becomes a benign rather than a vicious circle growing to encompass the world and all that's in it.

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3. Vocabulary Development in the Content Fields

ROSE BURGESS BUEHLER

OVER ALL THE world children are learning languages in cultural settings. Children imitate the speech patterns of people of importance to them, and meaning is communicated by tone of voice, pitch, and bodily gestures. Children learn listening and speaking vocabularies in social settings. The family culture in which a child is growing up and the social groups to which he belongs have a tremendous influence on his ways of perceiving word meanings in vocabulary, which in turn will influence his thinking and behavior. A word is limited in meaning without a context. Meanings are not in words but in the thinking of people. For example, the word "run" has multiple meanings in the following phrases: a run on the bank; the salmon run; a home run in baseball; and the river runs.

Each person uses several different vocabularies: a speech vocabulary used in conversation; a listening vocabulary when he responds to the spoken word; a writing vocabulary for communication with others; and a reading vocabulary when he reacts to printed symbols.

To insure vocabulary development in the content fields in the junior high school culture, which is related to the larger world citizenship of which the pupil is a part, the school program will need to consider his individual interests, ambitions, and academic backgrounds. Cultural tools and visual aids are needed, as for example: basic art materials; records and phonographs for student exploration in areas of listening (music appreciation); simple musical instruments to stimulate creative melodies and rhythms; maps, globes, films and film strips, and equipment to make slides; materials for writing and duplication for communication with others; magnets, batteries, and magnifying glasses; and an abundance of challenging, interesting paperback books, encyclopedias and other reference books, trade books, a variety of easy interesting biographies and autobiographies; magazines, bulletins on occupations and other interests; newspapers, news film strips, and other mass media; programed learning materials; and factual texts to promote international understanding with pictures that teach and explain without prejudice.

Film strips of current events are used to build habits of critical reading as well as daily reading of the newspaper. Weekly news film strips produced by the Visual Education Center, Laboratory Office in Madison, Wisconsin, introduce pupils to a careful study and critical reading of a daily newspaper, the various parts that make it up, its role as a source of news, and difference between news reports and editorials.

Moreover, in the content field of geography the development of such terms as high and low pressure areas, relative humidity, temperature, velocity, and rainfall are made meaningful in discussions of such mass media as the newspapers, TV, and the radio. In addition, weather maps used in the classroom demonstrate these concepts, and pupils learn to use the terms while "thinking geographically."

The mathematical vocabulary, such as, fractions, decimals, numerals, zero, equal numbers, Commutative Law, may need to be demonstrated for understanding through the use of a chalkboard number line. Understanding must be secured before concept development can be assured.

Observations made during field trips in the neighborhood, community, and interschool visits will promote the pupil's technical vocabulary concerning major work projects. He will develop basic concepts of transportation and communication, and conversation of natural resources; he will acquire too, a better understanding of other people and the contributions they make to our civilization. Extended tours with the family and individual trips taken by the student on his own initiative or by assignment with subsequent reports will prove valuable to the whole group. An imaginary trip planned and organized in the same way as a real tour, but visited vicariously by means of slides, photographs, maps, specimens, and film strips will again prove valuable.

Pupils gain many concepts about citizenship in the modern world and the resultant responsibilities as they participate in making group and individual decisions in the classroom, setting up standards of work, and in sharing responsibilities. These experiences in experimentation and exploration of effective group processes promote habits of listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Communication is a social process. When later the pupils meet the concept words, "democracy," "responsibility," "justice," in reading in the content fields, this vocabulary will be highly charged with meaning. William S. Gray once said, "When the pupil can see through the printed symbols to the meaning that lies beyond, it is similar to looking through a window and seeing the view without being conscious of the window frame."

The effectiveness of a sequential developmental program in vocabulary development in the content fields in the junior high school can be determined in part by observing the quality of improvement of pupils' oral and written work, their achievement of increased power over vocabulary difficulty, their successful work in independent reading periods, and their frequent enjoyment of books on an individualized basis.

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b. Adolescents and Literature in Three Dimensions

G. ROBERT CARLSEN

For years I have been contemplating the patterns by which people grow in literary appreciation and develop an enthusiasm for reading. Throughout my data I am struck with the accidents in the process. Records are filled with references such as the following: "A newly made friend went to the library every Friday afternoon to check out books, so naturally I went along; and not to be left behind, I also checked out books." "I sat next to the bookshelf in the classroom and when I was bored with geography, I used to take a book from the shelf when the teacher wasn't looking." "The librarian always had a new book or two that she was willing to let me read before she put it in the library, so I felt that I was particularly privileged and read all the more." "I discovered a whole stack of old books in my grandfather's attic and I used to sit and read whenever we visited him." "One day on the bus I found a paper-backed edition of *They Were Expendable*. This was the first book that I remember reading with complete pleasure." These accidents grow out of a relationship to friends, a particular condition in a schoolroom or library, a suggestion of an older person, or the discovery of a cache of books in an unexpected place.

They all substantiate the old, old cliché of the right book for the right child, at the right moment of his life, a principle for bringing children and books together that most of us have preached for a long time. However fine the principle, it is a bit nebulous in giving direction to a busy teacher faced with a sequence of five classes a day, five days a week. I have come to the conclusion that there is the greatest chance with the greatest number of students of producing accidents, through the use of a somewhat formalized program built on a cycle of three kinds of activities repeated with variation each year in the secondary schools. These are the three dimensions of a planned literary program.

Dimension I. Individualized Reading

For six weeks to two months, each child is given free rein to read what he wants. The individualized program starts ordinarily with some sort of survey of what the individuals in the class seem to like. A simple theme assignment in which children are asked to describe the kind of books they have found most interesting in recent reading is easy to use. A questionnaire in which children are asked to describe the aspects of a book they would ask a writer to write to order for them is most revealing. From the interests revealed, the teacher, working with the librarian, brings to class thirty or so books. Actually because interest is correlated to a high degree with chronological development, there will not be more than six or seven major types of books represented in the interests.

In the program children are told not to continue reading something they do not enjoy. If they want to change after reading a few pages, they are free to do so, and the teacher will help with a further selection. Perhaps a third of the students will start and stop and start and stop, often for as long as two or three weeks before they finally find a book that really absorbs them.

During the succeeding weeks, the teacher uses fifteen to twenty minutes of most periods for a number of activities that may prove helpful. One is the presentation of a variety of kinds of booklists as suggested sources for reading. Occasionally he will get the class to make suggestions to one another around such things *as the funniest book I have ever read, the most exciting book I have ever read, the scariest book I have ever read, the strangest book I have ever read.*

Occasionally the teacher talks about the works of a particular author from Felsen to Hemingway, or discusses informally what to look for in books and how to discriminate between good and poor aspects of writing. However, the major activity of the program will be individual silent reading.

Obviously students need to keep some sort of record. Each keeps a simple notebook with titles of books read, and a statement of what he thought about as he read a book, what new ideas, new understanding, he got from the story.

Evaluation is tricky. I have worked out a ratio between the number of books read, the quality of the books chosen and the indication of the impact of the books on the reader. Thus an individual who reads a few classics of literature may come out with the same evaluation, if the books have not had much impact on him, as the one who has read simple adolescent stories that have really stirred him.

Magic starts to happen: Students who have never read with enthusiasm, find a book that interests them; the reader of magazines of a fairly low level becomes a book reader; the reader of contemporary fiction often moves to tasting a classic of literature. Some students become enamored of an area, like stories of Africa, or the writing of a particular author.

The program is not the same thing as the usual outside reading assignment dearly loved by many teachers, for in it the student does not have any protracted experience in really trying to find a book that he enjoys or in developing an interest when it is struck. The minimum time for an individualized program is about six weeks.

If such an experience is set up each year in the program, grades seven through twelve, it is possible to vary it from time to time. For example the program of complete freedom of choice might be used twice in the six years, perhaps at grades 7 and 11. Perhaps in grades 8 and 10, it is centered in exploration in a literary type (at the eighth grade in biography and at the 10th in drama). At grades 9 and 12, students might be asked to prestructure their reading program: that is to pick an area of special interest and draw up the list of titles they want to read. In such a situation, one boy chose beatnik literature; another wanted to read French novels; one wanted to read only war stories; another, science fiction; another, the novels of Hemingway; a girl, stories of early married life, etc. The attempt is made to plan the sequence of reading so that there is an ascending level of difficulty or maturity of the titles within the list.

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The individualized reading experience can be formalized in such a way that it is within the grasp of most teachers. Even though somewhat artificial, it is one of the rich avenues to the production of the accidents that make an enthusiastic reader.

Dimension II. Reading in Common

The group reading of individual works is the program that is most often in effect in most English courses in the country. There *are* values that come out of such an experience. A common undertaking may be considered almost a demonstration: It is used to show young people how to read a work of literature, to show them how to interpret character and motivation, how to perceive structure, how to let a book sweep one up and fill his mind with sensations, visions, and insights. However, too much of this kind of approach rapidly produces boredom or monotony. Furthermore, the traditional presentation of common reading has been predicated on the assumption that the works selected are artifacts of our culture that educated people must know. The reading of the common body of literature, has largely been looked at as the "content" of literature study, rather than as a "method" of literature study. Its study has been an end itself . . . the objective is to have read a Shakespearean play, a Scott novel and to know as much about it of a factual nature as the teacher can gather together. If the individual work is regarded as "method," it is chosen and presented as the avenue through which students' personal reading may be furthered, stimulated, and enriched.

The selection of common reading is certainly a matter of individual decision from school system to school system, and must be determined by the reading abilities of the class and knowledge of adolescent reading interests. It should be something a little in advance of the student's normal reading, but that has a good chance of interesting him once he has made some struggle to grasp it. In one school, the following have proved successful.

7th grade:	*Johnny Tremaine* *Goodbye My Lady*
8th grade:	*The Yearling* *Poe's Stories* *Radio Plays from Shakespeare*
9th grade:	*Lost Horizon* *Kon Tiki*
10th grade:	*A Tale of Two Cities* *1984*
11th grade:	*Death of a Salesman* *Wuthering Heights*
12th grade:	*Of Human Bondage* *Antigone* *The Secret Sharer*

There is nothing sacred about the particular choices. But each is chosen because it offers the possibility of teaching, and because it is suggestive of a wide range of similar books that students may want to read if the accident happens and they want another book just as good as that one. Many teachers have discovered that in heterogeneous classes, they have success with choosing four or five individual works and letting students work together in reading the books in smaller groups.

One of the commonest mistakes made in the group reading of a single selection is that too much time is devoted and the work drags. Several studies indicate that what young people will get from the study of a single book, they will get in a very short period of time. Probably as a general rule of procedure, no single work should be the center of class activity for more than two weeks' time. Perhaps two or three such experiences a year, if carefully chosen, are the optimum use of this dimension.

Dimension III. Thematic Reading of Literature

Adolescents cannot escape the inner turmoil of experience: of facing fear, of human loneliness, of inner restlessness, of playing the part that is expected of one because of his sex, position, or external necessity, of urgings toward the opposite sex, of physical and mental euphoria, of failure in one's own eyes or in the eyes of one's peers, of sudden delights in the qualities of experience. J. S. Bruner points out ("Learning and Thinking." *Harvard*

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Review, V. 29, 1959, p. 184) that the end of education is thinking rather than learning. Man must think about his basic inner concerns as well as about those of his external instrumental world. Literature and the arts, operating as *metaphore,* are the organizing principle by which knowledge of the human condition is rendered into a form that makes thinking possible.

Literature as a *metaphore* is the tool by which we consider those innermost things that are a part of ourselves. Obviously much of this would be hoped to be the impact of the literature presented in the first two dimensions, but since to me it is a crucial experience, I feel that it has to be hit directly and squarely, through units that present to children a number of different *metaphores* (poems, a play, a short story, a novel, an essay), which seem to be codes for the same basic facet of the human condition. So it seems imperative to design units around such areas as Moments of High Adventure, The Faces of Courage, Conflicts in Allegiances, The Hinges of Decision, Imaginary Visions, The Thirst for New Experiences, Aloneness, The Golden Mean, Feelings and Families, Goodness in the Daily Round, etc.

The idea-centered unit usually revolves around two kinds of reading material: a core of shorter selections and an extensive list of longer selections. A unit begins ordinarily with the presentation of the theme and a discussion on the part of the class of immediate ideas and feelings about the area of experience under consideration. The challenge is thrown out that through literature, students will have a chance to react to the ideas and feelings of many people in many circumstances about the same experiences. Quite early in the work, students are helped to select at least one book for personal reading from an extensive list of reading. While students are reading individually outside of class, usually a period of about two weeks, the teacher uses the class period to present a number of short stories, essays, and poetry which deal with aspects of the theme, so that there is constant deepening of the understanding. The short selections serve as a vehicle for showing students what they are to look for and analyze in their individual reading. It is interesting to watch a class involved in such a process, for almost spontaneously as they are discussing a short story, they will start to feed in references from the individual books they are reading.

But in addition to such spontaneous comments, students toward the end of the unit will pool the reactions and ideas and feelings they have derived from their individual reading around the theme. The pooling is usually most successfully done through small groups planning a panel discussion for the rest of the class growing out of the panel members' individual reading.

Once again, accidents start to happen. Young people are made aware of the importance of literature in their own lives, and they come to seek other books of a related nature.

In the typical English course of study approximately half the time is devoted to the study of literature, roughly 18 weeks out of a year's work. I suggest then that a balanced program for the year would consist of 8 weeks of an individualized reading program, 4 weeks of class reading of common selections (two experiences of two weeks apiece) and six weeks of an idea centered reading of literature. One of the curses of most programs in literature has been their monotony. In general, in most current programs students approach literature uniformly through only one of these attacks, the most usual being the common reading and discussion of works. A college student, however, said the other day that she came through a unit centered study and found it equally repetitious. Students in individualized reading eventually feel that they want to read and discuss a book in common. It is from these experiences, that I feel we need a cycle of experiences in reading for students, so that they tackle literature in different ways.

Your reading pattern and mine are multi-dimensional. Sometimes we browse casually, sometimes we want to share reactions with others who have read the same book, and sometimes we want to pursue the experiences and baffling aspects of human experience through successive reading. To ignite the spark that makes the mature reader, we need to give our students these same experiences.

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C. JUNIOR HIGH LEVEL

1. The Vitality of Literature

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IN DISCUSSING the vitality of literature, I shall turn to the pursuit of poetry—a form of literature which offers "hyacinths and biscuits," camellias and bathtubs, gritty mud globules, and a "single goggling telescopic eye" which "enfolds the spheric wonder of the sky."[1]

If we are to have youth truly read poetry, it must be presented in a way to keep the glowing interest flame alive, for if this flame is extinguished during adolescence, it will be a difficult one to rekindle.

The vitality of poetry reading can be kindled if adolescent reading fare has variety, if teachers help pupils to really read a poem, if poetry reading is taught through the use of sequential developmental steps, if levels of appreciation are presented with deepening dimensions as the child matures, and if poetic reading becomes a living, glowing experience in the hands of an artist teacher.

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[1] Sidney Keyes, "Greenwich Observatory" in *Modern Poetry in the Classroom*, edited by Roger Hyndman. Champaig: Illinois: The National Council of Teachers of English, 1961-1963, p. 38.

Variety in Poetic Selections

Many literature anthologies and series of basal readers present poems which are similar in type, even repetitious, offering nearly identical experiential encounters with poetry. For instance, in grade three the child may listen to Tennyson's "The Eagle," and in grade seven the poem may be taught again at the same level of understanding. The adolescent appetite must be whetted with poetry of the new age and passages from immortal poetry tomes, images of hyacinths and tunes of the planets, lilting limericks and romantic ballads, lyrical sonnets and such epics as the *Iliad* and the *Odyssey* with their "stark objectivity" and dreamlike adventurous quality. The poet's artistry may hammer out a shocking recognition of the mechanized atrocities of war, or contrast these images with whiffs of fragrant lilacs and touches of white waxy magnolias; this aesthetic touch of beauty offers an antidote to horror and tragedy. Some of our young adolescents may look at Spring freshly in the lines by De Jong in "Spring Comes to New England."[2]

How much freer this description of Spring appears when contrasted to the image of "glassed-in-children" in the poem, "Questioning Faces," by Frost.[3] If poetry is to become a vital experience, the reader should be offered a rich diet and appetites should not be jaded with poems as colorless as poi or pablum.

Some persons feel that modernity in poetry selection might tantalize readers' interests. However, a recent publication date is not necessarily an "open sesame" as many modern poems are obscure and confusing to the unsophisticated reader. Such a poem as "God's Grandeur" by Gerald Manley Hopkins[4] is just as modern today as it was in the nineteenth century.

How to Read a Poem

Teachers of secondary pupils may find numerous ways to read poetry outlined in articles published in the *English Journal* and in a booklet, *Modern Poetry in the Classroom* published by the National Council of Teachers of English. Poetry reading does not come easily. It is a skill which has deepening dimensions commencing in early childhood and progressing to adulthood. A recent volume by Morris Sweetkind[5] illustrates some reading skills relating to "Cargoes" by Masefield.

A recent volume by Harvey Gross,[6] a study of Prosody from Thomas Hardy to Robert Lowell, suggests ways to show sound and stress in poetic lines. According to Gross, "The full meaning of a poem involves a great deal more than its paraphrasable conceptual content." In other words, meaning is to be expanded to include "rhythmic cognition."

Teachers must be cautious about teaching intonation patterns in a mechanical, unexciting manner. Many teachers are using recordings by Dylan Thomas and other poets so adolescents can respond to the aural imagery in such a poem as "Fern Hill."[7]

One discovers a poem through appreciating it at many levels. G. Robert Carlsen[8] has suggested five levels of poetic appreciation which include: Level one, enjoyment of rhythm; melody, and story. Level two, appreciation of seeing one's own experiences mirrored in poetry. Level three, projection into a world other than that in which one lives. Level four, understanding of symbolism and hidden meanings. Level five, sensitivity to patterns of writing and to literary style. I would add a sixth level—developing philosophical speculation upon the meaning of life. The five levels suggested by Carlsen have been used to develop numerous teaching experiences at each level by teachers in the Oakland, California city schools. A booklet showing ways to develop appreciation at these levels, *Find Time for Poetry,* is available.

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[2] David Cornel De Jong, "Spring Comes to New England" in *Lean Out the Window* by Sara Hannum, Sara and Gwendolyn E. Reed, Compilers, Atheneum, 1965.

[3] Robert Frost, "Questioning Faces" from *In the Clearing,* New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1962, p. 63.

[4] Alice C. Coleman and John R. Theobald, *An Anthology Introducing Poetry.* New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1964, p. 327.

[5] Morris Sweetkind, *Teaching Poetry in the High School,* New York: The MacMillan Co., 1964, p. 132.

[6] Harvey Gross, *Sound and Form in Modern Poetry.* A Study of Prosody from Thomas Hardy to Robert Lowell. Ann Arbor, University of Michigan Press, 1964, p. 18.

[7] Robert Hillyer, *In Pursuit of Poetry,* New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1960, p. 205-206.

[8] Alameda County School Department, *Find Time for Poetry,* Alameda Schools, 1964.

The fourth aspect of poetry teaching, the development of planned sequential steps, is probably the most neglected area of literature teaching. Nearly fifty years ago, poetry appreciation was ruined through too much scansion and wooden memorization of poetic lines. The pendulum has swung the other way and basal developmental readers have tended to present poetry at a surface appreciation level only.

Reading texts need to focus upon the developmental reading of poetry. Curriculum leaders must concentrate upon certain poetry appreciation skills at each grade level from one to fourteen. For instance, primary-grade children can easily learn to appreciate alliteration, the refrain, and simile in poetry which is written at their level. Intermediate grade pupils can understand poetry that utilizes such elements as metaphor, personification, tone, rhyme, and imagery. Young adolescents can then be prepared to appreciate allusion, tone, a few of the musical devices and rhythm and meter. At the high school level students can enjoy paradox, irony, and other more difficult phases of prosody.

The vitality of literature must be experienced. "Star Pudding" by Coffin[9] illustrates a contrast between mud and stars. This same poet also wrote about a significant moment of life in "Crystal Moments,"[10] an instant when life and death rode precariously between the hunter and the hunted. The youth in our schools should find crystal moments of life and a morning star peeping over their shoulders.

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[9] Robert P. Coffin, "Star Pudding" in *Poems and Poets* by David Aloian, New York: McGraw-Hill, 1965.

[10] Edgar H. Knapp, *Introduction to Poetry*, Wichita, Kansas: McCormick-Mathers Co., 1965.

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2. In the Intermediate Grades

a. Changing Concepts of Reading Instruction in the Content Areas

MYRON L. COULTER

As one reads the research and literature related to the teaching of content at least one generalization becomes increasingly clear. It is that the teaching of reading skills and the teaching of subject matter are inseparably related. The studies show that merely the fact that a child reads well from a general reading text is no guarantee that he will successfully master the unique reading skills required of arithmetic, science, and the social studies. In other words, while the close relationship exists between good reading ability and success in the mastery of content, this is not an automatic coupling.

Studies such as those reported by Fay[1] and Artley[2] have shown that significant gains in achievement are obtained when special attention is given to the reading skills in arithmetic, science, and the social studies. So long as we are interested in improving teaching and learning, these words *special attention* retain their significance. They give the lie to any notions of a one-to-one relationship between general reading ability and achievement in the content areas, and they strongly imply that reading skills must be taught throughout the curriculum.

As we look further through the literature we may determine what are some of the common and unique skills in the various content areas. It becomes quite obvious that there is a need for stressing comprehension, vocabulary and word meaning, reading-study skills, the perception of relationships, and the development of experiential background for all subject-matter fields.[3,4]

Then there are more specialized skills such as map reading, locating verbal clues, and interpreting symbols. These skills are unique not because they are used only in one field, but because they are most often taught within a specific discipline.

In addition to the skills there is a noticeable difference in today's materials. The discovery of new knowledge and the rearrangement of already established knowledge have revised old textbooks and written new ones. Likewise, the increasing emphasis upon reading has encouraged the flood of thousands of trade books and supplementary texts which are available at every turn. These and other developments have led to a jam-packed curriculum and a need for greater efficiency in teaching and learning. To further complicate the life of the teacher, studies are constantly identifying problems which daily confront us in the adequate use of teaching materials. An example is Mary Serra's review of surveys of elementary social studies materials, in which she concluded that (a) there is an excessive concept burden, (b) there is insufficient repetition of difficult and unusual concepts, and (c) that the development of concepts is made more difficult by too frequent use of indefinite terms.[5]

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[1] Leo Fay, "Responsibility for and Methods of Promoting Growth in Reading in the Content Areas," *Better Readers for Our Times*, International Reading Association Conference Proceedings, vol. 1, p. 92, 1956.

[2] A. S. Artley, "A Study of Certain Relationships Existing Between General Reading Comprehension and Reading Comprehension in the Subject-Matter Areas," *Journal of Educational Research* 37:464-473, February, 1944.

[3] Leo Fay, "What Research Has to Say About Reading in the Content Fields," *Reading Teacher* 8:68-72, December, 1954.

[4] *Encyclopedia of Educational Research*, Third Edition, edited by Chester W. Harris, New York: The Macmillan Company, 1960, pp. 1122-1127.

The findings of these and other studies are placing an increasing burden upon reading efficiency in the content areas, and point out the fact that teaching is not getting easier, in spite of improved techniques. It would not be so bad if a teacher could ditch the skills and rely upon one text, and it certainly would accomplish one thing. It would eliminate the pleasure and efficiency of learning.

Reading and the Curriculum

There are many reasons why reading is so vital to learning, aside from the fact that it is the major tool for the acquisition of basic information. When we look at the responsibilities our culture has placed upon the schools we see an urgent demand for improving children's reading efficiency.

Today our schools are pressured with requests for teaching more content and teaching it more effectively. The need for better development of work-study skills was never greater. We are asked to know more about Johnny—to be able to diagnose his strengths and weaknesses for mastering content. There is greater desire for depth in understanding and more active pupil participation in the discovery of knowledge. There is a drive for creativity, critical thinking, and problem solving. We are at new heights in demanding better command of arithmetic skills, in probing new science concepts, and in developing international understandings.

Of course the teacher is responsible for providing the learning environment which will satisfy these demands, but the ultimate burden for accomplishing these tasks rests with the learner. No teacher can do these jobs for him, but all teachers can help equip him to do these jobs more satisfactorily. And the teacher who ignores the uncommon reading skills is leaving out a major item of his pupils' equipment.

It is interesting to note that the changing concepts of reading as described by Dr. McCullough and the changing concepts of the content areas are complementary. As in reading, the major emphases in the content areas cluster around the objectives of a better foundation of reading and thinking skills, more extensive and intensive reading, a variety of teaching and grouping techniques, improved materials and procedures in diagnosing pupil abilities and inabilities, inductive reasoning, and the judicious employment of a variety of materials. There is further agreement that it is exceedingly difficult, and just as undesirable, to label or identify any pure forms of organizational and pedagogical patterns. Also, we now more fully appreciate the child's abilities and realize that we have much to learn from him — from his background, from his thinking, his writing, his reading, and his doing. For too long we have overlooked our best teaching resource — our pupils. And any teacher who has not experienced the somewhat startling revelation that his kids have more to offer him than he has to offer them has not fully lived.

Reading and Arithmetic

For more concrete illustrations of the changing concept let's look at the field of arithmetic. In the intermediate grades there is renewed emphasis upon the discovery of principles, the solution of verbal problems, the mental processes a child goes through in solving a problem, the social practicality of the content, and the processes of judging, estimating, and justifying the solution. The accent is on functional, timely, meaningful arithmetic. Instead of *dividing five boys into one*

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[5] Mary C. Serra, "The Concept Burden of Instructional Materials," *Elementary School Journal* 53:275-285, 1953.

apple we are now more concerned with how many and what kind of provisions are needed for a five-boy week-end camping trip.

Just as reading is an act of discovery so is the most profitable teaching-learning program in arithmetic. When youngsters are led to discover the basic principles through inductive processes the outcomes are more meaningful and longer lasting.

The solution of verbal problems has long been a matter of concern to arithmetic teachers. There is a need for direct attention to the structure of the problem statement, the terminology used, the perception of relevant clues, and the interpretation of the general sense of the problem. Placing emphasis upon careful reading will help to eliminate one of the major *gremlins* of problem solution — carelessness.

An interesting and often enlightening experiment in diagnosis is to have the youngsters verbalize or, even better, write out the steps and thinking procedures they went through in solving a problem. Talk about individual differences! They pop out all over the place when youngsters describe the various methods they used to get the *right* answer. And who can criticize them for the incorrect procedures if they come up with the correct solution? The point is that while there may be several methods of attack and solution, one or two may be more *efficient* than the others. And then the teaching begins.

As in reading there is a continuing need for group work of various types in arithmetic. Grouping for a single specific purpose, grouping which occasionally mixes the high and low ability levels, and grouping for purposes of discussing and completing the work in study guides, workbooks, project assignments, etc., each has a place in the instructional program.

Reading and Science

Similar changes of concept surround the science content for the intermediate grades, except in many respects it is the teacher who is trying to stay abreast of his pupils.

There is certainly a remaining need for emphasis upon the natural sciences, but new dimensions are being added constantly. We are now in space with the astronauts, at super-supersonic speeds with the X-15 rocket plane, and in orbit with the Discoverers, Explorers, Echoes, and Sputniks. Within the span of ten years we have gone from the conquest of Everest to surfacing at the pole with the atomic submarine *Skate* and on to the fringes of outer space. The scope of modern science is frightening when thought of in terms of organizing a teaching program which leads to basic understandings of these technological achievements. The unanswered challenge facing us now is how to provide a program that is comprehensive, manageable, and understandable.

It is obvious that reading skills and interests play a major role in the science program. The mastery of the technical vocabulary and fundamental concepts of science content calls for a vigorous teacher-directed study program which includes word meaning, reference work, the relating of concepts, noting detail, following written directions, and grasping main ideas.[6]

Encouraging interest in wide reading is an important task of the teacher, especially in science. But possibly more important is the directing of already existent reading interests into the appropriate materials.

The present accent on science teaching has led to at least two interesting side effects with regard to reading. On the one hand volumes of children's science trade books are being published. On the other hand many teachers have retreated to the basic science text in order to ensure something other than an incidental treatment of content, and still others have moved into the text in order to ensure a fair, comprehensive, and I might add superficial, treatment of the many facets of the content. In either case, as a result of teachers' good intentions for meeting the demands of teaching more science, the program has often become a series of rather poorly taught reading lessons, ignoring the principles of both good reading and science skills.

The youngsters are reading the science trade books, often of their own volition. It is our job to capitalize upon this valuable asset and make it a part of the classroom instruction. This can be done through project work, discussions, independent experiments, and individual assignments.

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[6] A. S. Artley, *op. cit.*

Reading and the Social Studies

When we look at the changing face of the unstable intermediate grade social studies program, we immediately recognize the importance of a realistic reading program. The scope of the social studies ranges from the historical and geographic concepts of ancient civilizations to the political, economic, cultural, and physical characteristics of contemporary issues and world hot spots. Within this continuum are found a myriad concepts and a specialized vocabulary, most of which will be encountered either for the first time or in an entirely different context from their common uses. The terms *feudal system, tribunal, earth grid, alliance,* and thousands of others represent not only specific terms but also basic concepts which are presented to youngsters in machine-gun fashion. A thorough study of these new terms as they appear in context is of itself a vital and exacting undertaking. But of course there is more. Isolated concepts are as meaningless as words out of context. These ideas must be related and this is accomplished through a process of synthesis, with interpretive reading ability as the binding cement.

In dealing with contemporary issues such as politics and the cold war our youngsters have need of the ability to determine fact from fantasy. Teachers of the upper intermediate grades are finding it entirely possible to use newspaper editorials and other popular writings which adhere to a particular point of view for the purposes of teaching critical reading and reaction.

There are other specific reading skills which can be best taught through social studies content. For instance, the proper utilization of the various types of maps, globes, and charts calls for several keenly developed abilities. These technical materials and abilities are often of far greater value in establishing the significance of man's environment than is the written text. There is no question that location, size, shape, and distance are important, although often neglected. But of equal, if not greater, importance is the knowledge of *why* the seasons change, *why* we gain or lose a day when crossing the international date line, and *why* there is no such thing as a permanent north pole at 90° north latitude. These facts are on the globe for the world to see, but they call for a specialized skill—the observation and interpretation of relationships.

For more general information the reading of biographies, historical fiction, the fascinating diary accounts of the westward movement across America, and other sources are waiting to be read. Television series such as *Bold Journey* and *Expedition* provide not only exciting factual accounts of adventure, but also free lesson plans and study guides for teachers.

It looks very much as if a teacher can no longer afford the dubious luxury of being a reading teacher for only forty-five minutes a day. And if the facilities are available, every intermediate-grade teacher should see to it that each child holds a circulation card from the nearest public library.

In summary, the various content fields represent the means for organizing bodies of related information into teaching-learning clusters, with the ultimate aims of preparing the learners in subject matter and also in the abilities to understand, to interrelate, to implement, and to further explore the knowledge of the field. Both teachers and learners must take the giant step from the *what* and the *how* to the *why* and the *what else* in each subject area.

Herein lie many implications for teaching the skills of reading. Since each individual must rely upon various forms of reading and the accompanying thought processes for gathering much of his information, he must learn to quickly comprehend new ideas, and he must develop the particular techniques which will enable him to probe beneath the surface of knowledge.

This is not to say that a child cannot learn without high reading ability, but it does say that the better his reading and thinking abilities the better his chances for understanding the *whys* and *what elses* of any body of content.

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B. JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

1. The Nebraska Curriculum: Literature, Linguistics, and Composition

ELDONNA L. EVERTTS

ANYONE involved in building a sound curriculum should possess a basic understanding of how children and adolescents grow and develop as well as being knowledgeable on theories of learning and instruction and the role of motivation, interest, and reinforcement. Curriculum planners are aware that students learn quickly those understandings and generalizations which they discover for themselves. A curriculum which encourages a teacher to use skillful questions and an inductive method of instruction is more effective than one which condones telling or lecturing and which often results in mere repetition, memorization, and testing.

When planning a curriculum we must provide situations which will encourage students at all grade levels to think. Success in life demands that the individual have the ability to think and make judgments; consequently, it is essential that we teach students to think in the classroom. Knowledge which is already possessed and understood by the student and applied to new situations enables the student to acquire a greater concept of the structure involved. Today it has become more important than ever before that we help our students to analyze a situation, identify the basic issue, consider possible solutions by drawing upon previous experience and knowledge, and then reaching a logical conclusion which can be supported by research, knowledge, or intuitive thinking. Such a basis for instruction encourages a thoughtful, creative approach to any problem at hand—the understanding and appreciation of a literature selection, the recognition of a linguistic principle, or the manner in which to organize, compose, and present a piece of expository writing. We want students to be able to apply what is learned to new situations, to be able to re-arrange material, and to understand the basic structure of a content area. The Nebraska English curriculum has attempted to define such a program.

The Center

The Nebraska curriculum was begun in 1961. A questionnaire sent to English teachers throughout the state by the Nebraska Council of Teachers of English revealed that the English curriculum at that time lacked unity or a sequential plan of instruction. Consequently, during that summer a group of teachers, scholars, and consultants prepared a description of an English program which they hoped would be helpful to Nebraska teachers. During the summers of 1962 and 1963 a series of teaching units for grades 1-12 were written by teachers who attended the institutes supported by the Woods Charitable Fund of Lincoln. In addition to writing classroom materials, the teachers attended classes in literature, linguistics, and composition. During the 1964 institute teachers concentrated on composition, rhetoric, and logic and revised and extended the teaching units.

It was during 1962 that the Nebraska Curriculum Development Center was organized under Project English and as such it is supported by the University of Nebraska and federal funds administered under the auspices of the United States Office of Education. The material which has been produced in the Center is being used experimentally in four pilot-school districts as well as by individual teachers and districts throughout the state.

Literature

The English curriculum as conceived in Nebraska has been based upon two convictions. First, that students should have a broad acquaintance with the literature of our western culture by being introduced to the best which has been thought and said in our tradition. Second, that students can be helped to acquire skill in using and recognizing good writing by studying the forms and patterns most worthy of imitation in oral and written communication. To accomplish these broad objectives the curriculum has been centered around a study of literature with a study of the nature of language as described by structural linguists and a carefully designed program in composition as three essential components.

The literature program in the elementary school includes a study of folk-lore, fairy-tales, myths, heroic legends, adventure, biography, and stories of the past and present which are read to the pupils. Each selection at the elementary level has its own contribution for the child at the time it is read to him. It is meant to be enjoyed and appreciated when it is introduced as well as to provide a reservoir of literature for future comparisons. At the later levels the students read comedy, satire, tragedy, and selections which deal with the nature of man and his place in the universe. One of the benefits of this program, which teachers using the units have reported, is the interest it has stimulated in books and reading.

Linguistics

Passages from good literature are selected and the conventions of language are discussed. Students are helped to bring their intuitive sense of grammar to a conscious understanding of what is involved. This implies that the teachers must know the nature and characteristics of language behavior if they are to discuss meaningfully and accurately the features of language with students.

In the elementary school the pupils should be able to use and manipulate their language in a number of ways and to understand the manner in which it operates but not necessarily to know all the terminology involved. Teachers who are teaching an understanding of language from the structural linguistic point of view report that students in the upper levels are learning grammar more quickly, easily, and completely than they did with traditional grammar. Our experience in Nebraska indicates that teachers cannot afford to be unfamiliar with linguistics.

Language change, dialect, usage, and the historical development of our lan-

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guage is especially fascinating to and within the comprehension ability of upper elementary and junior high school students. Lessons in dialect and the historical development of our language re-inforce each other. The pupils are helped to understand language by looking directly at the language and noting its conventions rather than by studying rules prescribing how language should function. The students learn that a dictionary records the manner in which the language is being used and that its function is not to prescribe how the language should be used.

Composition

After the student has had an ample opportunity to hear or read selections of quality literature, he is given the opportunity to write his own stories, compositions, and experiment with language. As the teacher reads the compositions, she notes the competencies which the pupils have displayed and the topics which need further exploration upon either an individual or group basis.

Recently funds have become available from the Louis W. and Maud Hill Family Foundation of Minnesota and the University of Nebraska to direct a longitudinal study of the logic and syntax of children's compositions in grades two to six. The linguistic scheme of analysis of the syntax which will be used in this study will permit a comparison to be made between the written and oral language patterns of elementary school children. The findings presented in the Indiana University study[1] by Ruth Strickland will be the basis for the description of oral language while the current study being conducted at Nebraska will concentrate upon the kinds of sentences children write, the "kinds of thoughts" expressed in writing, and what effect intensive training in literature and linguistics in the elementary school has upon the sentences children write and upon the logic in their written discourses.

Curriculum building is a never ceasing activity. It may be expected that changes in literature, language, and composition curricula will be made as the pioneer study at Nebraska and other research unfold the nature and structure of these areas, the effect of different curricula, and the result of various instructional methods upon student achievement.

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[1] Ruth G. Strickland. *The Language of Elementary School Children: Its Relationship to the Language of Reading Textbooks and the Quality of Reading of Selected Children*. Bloomington, Indiana: Bulletin of the School of Education, Indiana University, July, 1962.

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2. Language Studies and the Teaching of Literature

GEORGE HILLOCKS, JR.

THE TEACHING of reading at the secondary school level is usually either ignored or relegated to the realm of remedial or corrective reading classes taught by a special reading teacher. Ordinarily the secondary school English teacher is grossly insulted if he has to teach reading to his students. He regards reading as a prerequisite of the study of literature—a prerequisite with which he needn't be concerned. When a special problem in meaning arises such as the interpretation of a symbol, he explains the meaning to his students, apparently not caring whether his students will be able to cope with a similar problem if they should ever encounter it. Perhaps the fault is not all with the teacher; some of the blame may lie with the rather inadequate analysis of skills in reading literature. The skills involved in elementary school reading seem to be clearly defined, but the inference skill seems to be a catchall involving many complex problems. Although it may not be possible to define various kinds of inference skills, it is possible to define various literary structures about and in which inferences must be made if understanding is to be complete.

Two language studies of ostensibly disparate character provide a great deal of insight into the problems of meaning that arise in the higher literary structures. These are the theories of Kenneth L. Pike, a linguist at the University of Michigan, and Northrop Frye, a literary scholar and critic at the University of Toronto.

Language Theory

Pike states that for purposes of observation language units may be viewed as *particles, waves,* or *points* in a linguistic field. Take for example the following utterance: "Robinson Crusoe originated

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the forty hour week, because he got his work done by Friday." The sounds of this utterance may be segmented for observation. The first sound of Crusoe /k/ may be isolated, as may all the other meaningful sounds of the utterance. In reality, however, it is difficult to say where one sound ends and another begins—where /k/ ends and where /r/ begins; for in actual utterances, sounds are blended together into waves and may be examined in relation to the sounds with which they occur—in waves. Sounds may also be viewed as points in a field of all the possible sounds of the language, so that they can be viewed in contrast with other sounds. For instance /k/ contrasts with its voiced equivalent /g/ as well as with other sounds in its field. At a higher level the separate words of the utterance, *Robinson* and *Crusoe,* can be viewed as particles in a wave of words. A wave of words can be viewed as a particle in a larger syntactic structure (such as a phrase or clause) which occurs in still larger syntactic or grammatical structures. The pun as a unit can be analyzed into two semantic particles: *Robinson Crusoe is responsible for the forty hour week,* and *because he got his work done by Friday.* The first particle sets up certain expectations concerned with working conditions, labor unions, and a question as to what Robinson Crusoe has to do with it. The second particle resolves the expectations in an incongruous manner. The pun as a whole may be regarded as a particle in the wave of a larger discourse as it is in this one, or it may be viewed against a field of puns.

Literary Theory

It is at the level of the grammatical hierarchy that Northrop Frye's theories of literature become relevant, for he is concerned with the images, incidents, characters, symbols, styles, and themes which make up literary structures—with the particles which blend together into a wave and with the fields in which the specific particles and waves occur. Frye is concerned with the distribution of alternative incidents, images, and themes which occur within a given slot in the waves which make up a literary field. Comedy, for instance, is such a field. In this field Frye is concerned with the nature of the hero; the patterns of imagery, symbols, and themes; the plot structure; and the manner of presentation, all of which, in a single comic work, can be viewed as interlocking waves.

Applications to Teaching the Reading of Literature

What does all this have to do with reading? Let us return momentarily to Pike's phonological hierarchy, concerned with meaningful particles of sound and the ways in which they are grouped together. A reading teacher might teach the sequence of graphemes and sounds in the word *pat,* but unless he teaches these sounds and their graphemes in other environments it is extremely unlikely that the beginning student will recognize any but the word *pat.* It is unlikely that the student would read *tap* and certain that he would not read *pit, pet, put,* or *pot.* Yet on the other hand if this vowel series were studied in a series of contexts and in contrast to one another, and if the graphemes *t* and *p* were studied in various environments, it would be very likely that a student would recognize and read these sounds in the environments of other words.

The same is certainly true at the level of Pike's grammatical hierarchy. Most secondary English teachers teach literary work either in isolation or only in relation to an historical period. They traditionally teach *Macbeth* as the sole example of Elizabethan drama in twelfth grade survey courses. The various fields against which the play might profitably be examined—the general field of Elizabethan drama, the history play, and tragedy—are usually neglected. As a result, the student is very unlikely to be much better equipped for reading another tragedy than he was before he read the play.

Attention to particle, wave, and field ought to produce students who *can* read literature rather than those who *have* read literature, and perhaps we, as teachers, will begin to feel that at least some of our work is done by Friday.

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C. JUNIOR HIGH LEVEL

1. Desirable Experiences Through Language Arts

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EXPERIENCES in the Language Arts which may be counted on to improve reading comprehension are those which involve seeing, hearing, and speaking. An adjunct to these—neglected, forgotten, and ignored from first grade to graduate school—writing is troublesome and tiresome but an important segment of our Language Arts program. Speaking is to listening what writing is to reading.

While we are concerned with what is happening at the present time, we must realize that it is the individual's past experience which enables him to function as he does. We need to employ the "S" of Robinson's SQ3R technique as we look back and look ahead. A student's present comprehension is a direct result of what has happened to him in the past. Those language arts experiences he is now having are the foundation for future growth in reading. In other words the present builds on the past; and, at the same time, the present is the foundation of the future. Experience, like reading itself, is developmental.

The developmental nature of this learning-through-living suggests that an experience may occur too early or too late for maximal learning to take place. If too early, the student will not derive as much as though he were ready. Yet there must be a first time for everything and everyone. Subsequent experiences overlap and extend prior ones.

From a teacher's point of view an experience can be positive or negative. It may reinforce the instructional program of the school or it may negate it.

Some may question the need for this concern with experience. Yet reading, in a certain sense, is hanging new ideas on old hooks. Or, alternatively, the more the reader brings to his reading, the more he derives from it. In other words he has to be "ready" to read.

Readiness for reading includes such widely different components as interest, purpose, technical and general vocabulary, and basic understanding of the concepts involved. We want to find out more about the new things we see or hear. Thus purpose for reading is established. A trip to a museum or art gallery vitalizes vocabulary provided the individual has an active intellectual curiosity. While we frequently say the teacher's job is to teach concepts, it is equally true that this teaching may be accomplished by a field trip such as a visit to the United Nations building. Part of the teaching function, then, is to provide those experiences which develop this readiness for reading.[1]

Out-school Experiences

A major part of an individual's experience takes place outside the regular school day and may be incidental in nature. He does not stop seeing, speaking, or listening when the bell rings. Since his out-school environment varies greatly according to his age, his friends, his community, and his social level, there is no wonder that a great variety exists in what he sees, speaks, and hears.

The culturally different youngster is desperately in need of enrichment to offset the paucity of experience and the negative effects of much of his day-to-day existence. Concerted efforts are being made in many communities to provide such enrichment.

Many of the student's out-school hours center around his home. Great differences exist in the attitudes of parents towards their children. For some, the evening meal is to be eaten in quiet; for others, the evening meal is a time to share experiences. Parentcraft has a role to play in developing vocabulary and language perceptiveness.

Yet parents in many areas today are delegating many of the responsibilities formerly thought of as their special prerogatives. Driver training, religious instruction, and sex education are but three of the more obvious areas where the school has tended to take over. However, there are many others which cannot and should not be delegated. One of these is the inculcation of a love of reading, not only by reading to preschool children but also by demonstrating that parents enjoy books.

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[1] J. Roy Newton, *Reading in Your School*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1960, pp. 78-82.

In-school Experiences

Because of the wide variety existing in out-school experiences, both in the community and in the home, the school must stand ready to augment them for individuals, for groups within a class, and for whole classes. Visual-aid materials help supplement personal experience.

School-sponsored trips become increasingly more difficult to arrange at the junior high level because of departmentalization. Increased reliance must be placed upon supplying experiences vicariously through film strips, moving pictures, radio, and television. Each of these media, properly introduced by the teacher, builds vocabulary and aids in concept development.

At the same time the curriculum of the secondary school must continue to supply carefully organized, sequential experiences in the language arts. This is of paramount importance in English classes; but reading, writing, listening, and speaking are not confined to the subject called "English." Hence, teachers of other subjects, through in-service training, should be aided in their understanding in order that they may be able to reinforce language arts experiences in their classes.

Writing Experiences

Structural linguistics has shown us the relationship existing between spoken language and written language. Our basal readers (at least some of them) are stressing the connection between spoken language and reading. However, except for kinesthetic techniques used principally in remediation, we have largely ignored the role writing plays in the improvement of reading.

Of late several articles have appeared stressing the concept that the reader's comprehension of both sentences and paragraphs is facilitated if he understands how the written language functions. Niles[2] suggests that there are at least four kinds of thought relationships developed in sentences. These are time, simple listing, comparison-contrast, and cause and effect.

McCallister[3] indicates that the traditional "main-idea-details" approach to paragraph interpretation is not enough. Definition, illustration, comparison-contrast, problem solution, chronological order, and summary are methods used by the authors of textbooks. We shall help our students comprehend if we help them understand what the author's writing plan is and how he develops various paragraphs.

Klein,[4] writing in the *NEA Journal* for November, 1964, suggests that English composition can be improved not by the "teaching" of creative writing but by teaching the competent writing of expository prose. She recommends stressing a different method of paragraph development each week until the major ones have been taught.

Suppose we take these three different, although compatible, ideas and see how we can use them to improve reading comprehension.

The alert teacher can certainly find many examples of thought relationships employed in sentences in textbook writing. Before calling attention to these, however, the teacher might explore with the class the different ways in which sentences may be written. She would probably start with the development of ideas stemming from a common experience of the class on the chalkboard and would continue with group or individual seatwork.

Paragraph development could be handled in much the same way, starting with representative paragraphs collected from textbooks or previous student writing. The exact number of paragraphs to be developed would depend upon how quickly individuals grasped the ideas presented. A discussion period might follow with the class suggesting topics which would lend themselves to a particular type of organization. Groups within the class could also report on the types of paragraphs encountered in their reading in all subjects.

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[2] Olive S. Niles, "Comprehension Skills," *The Reading Teacher*, 17 (September 1963), pp. 2-7.

[3] James M. McCallister, "Using Paragraph Clues as Aids to Understanding," *Journal of Reading*, 8 (October 1964), pp. 11-16.

[4] Anna Lou Klein, "Let's Lower the Sights," *NEA Journal*, 53 (November 1964), pp. 17-18.

Since writing and reading are intimately connected, being opposite sides of the same coin of communication, the logical conclusion is that they be taught together. The mature reader uses internal clues of paragraph organization as aides to understanding. The knowledge of the more common methods by which authors develop paragraphs should be a valuable aid in teaching comprehension skills at the junior high level. Writing experiences contribute to reading comprehension.

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B. JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

1. Teaching Reading in the Content Areas: Some Basic Principles of Instruction

H. Alan Robinson

Content area teachers often shudder when they are told that "every teacher is a teacher of reading." They think of themselves usually as teachers of a subject and not as teachers of the skills of reading. And they are correct!

Reading skills cannot be separated from content. Any attempt to teach reading without utilization of the content materials within the curriculum defeats the purposes of instruction.

The improvement of reading ability is part of the content area curriculum, for the acquisition of reading skills becomes the acquisition of power within the content area itself. Content area teachers should, therefore, be concerned with at least the following basic principles of instruction.

1. *Establishing readiness for reading and studying a chapter, book, article, or selection improves understanding.* In making a reading assignment, the content area teacher should focus the attention of the students on what is to be read through (a) relating their past experiences to the reading, (b) developing key words and concepts that students will meet in the selection, and (c) establishing purpose(s) for the reading.

2. *Students should be helped to develop study techniques applicable to specific content area reading, and should be guided in the application of such techniques.* Certain techniques such as SQ3R[1] may be applied, with necessary modifications, to several of the content areas. Individual students and teachers may develop a variety of other functional study plans in relation to specific content. The concept of SURVEY, PREVIEW, or OVERVIEW is essential, however, to all plans. The student who takes the time to "think through" the reading prior to actually studying it will find himself better able to cope with the ideas presented. This "thinking through" should not be a hasty, mechanical skimming but a careful consideration of the title, opening paragraphs, headings, concluding paragraphs, italicized or bold print words and phrases, pictorial material and captions. The student should be encouraged to relate his past experience to the material and to set purposes for study.

3. *Common reading skills initially introduced elsewhere should be constantly*

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[1] Francis P. Robinson. *Effective Study*, Revised Edition. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1961. Note especially chapters two and three.

and consciously reinforced in the content areas. Such a common reading skill as RECOGNIZING MAIN IDEA, for example, is best cemented when applied in furthering the understanding of content materials.

4. *Specific reading skills, particularly pertinent to a content area, should be introduced initially by the content area teacher as the need for using certain skills with the content materials becomes evident.* Introduction and reinforcement should be consciously designed. READING A CIRCLE GRAPH, for example, is a skill most logically introduced when it is needed in a content area such as social studies or mathematics.

5. *When only one basic text is available for a class, it is vital that the teacher differentiate assignments.* There should be at least three levels of assignments—for the retarded reader, the average, the above-average—with differing degrees of complexity and a variety of purposes.

6. *Whenever possible, multilevel materials should be utilized.* Attempting to meet the needs of individual students through the use of multilevel materials and differentiated assignments places a heavy responsibility on the content area teacher, but offers opportunities for more extensive and intensive accomplishment by individual students.

7. *Students should be aware of and develop skill in recognizing the particular patterns of writing used in each content area.* Practice in recognizing such patterns as CONCLUSION-PROOF, PROBLEM-SOLUTION, QUESTION-ANSWER, and CAUSE-EFFECT will aid in the understanding and retention of ideas met in content area materials. Writing patterns should be explored at both the paragraph and selection level; patterns particularly applicable to specific content areas should be studied while using the pertinent content area materials.

8. *A classroom library related to each content area, containing materials at various reading and interest levels, should be accessible for all students.* Such libraries are additions to, not replacements of, school libraries. Students can often be motivated best to read books related to a content area "on the spot" rather than at another time. Teachers need to be familiar with the books in the classroom collection; the collection ought to change from time to time. If teachers must move from room to room, a rolling cart, or a few books carried by the teacher or assistant, may be an alternative. Possibly the best motivation for a reluctant male reader may come through the physical education teacher (with a small collection of sports books housed in his office) who says, "I just read a book about Mickey Mantle and it's terrific!"[2]

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[2] Gene Schoor. *Mickey Mantle of the Yankees.* New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1958.

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3. Selecting Suitable Material for the Literature Program

EDWARD R. SIPAY

ONE OF the keys to any successful literature program is the selection of material which is not only worthwhile but also suitable for each child. Proper selection is particularly important at the junior high school level because it is usually during adolescence that interest in reading begins to wane and that a transition in literary appreciation takes place. Provided that the content and conduct of the program is not mandated by the central office, the teacher is faced with a number of decisions—the correctness of which will greatly influence the effectiveness of the literature program.

In a viable literature program, opportunities are presented for reading both classical and contemporary literature as part of a required reading program and/or under a program of guided self-selection. Each type of literature and program has its advantages and limitations. The teacher must decide: (1) if and when reading should be required; (2) how and when to guide students' selections of material to be read in class; (3) which children can profit from reading classics; and, (4) which contemporary literature and classics, if any, are suitable for a particular child or group.

Regardless of the type of literature or by whom it is chosen, the material is suitable only if the student is able to read *and* appreciate it. The teacher must begin with material which is appropriate for each child's levels of reading ability and literary appreciation, even if it be the comics, and guide him toward more rewarding fare. In order to do this, she must have information concerning both the child and the material.

Knowledge concerning the child's background, reading interests, and level of literary appreciation can be obtained from cumulative records, interest inventories, records of free readings, and through interviews and observations. And, a rough estimate of the student's level of reading ability is revealed by his standardized achievement test scores. Care should be exercised, however, in interpreting grade-placement scores, especially those at the lower end of the scale. For example, a score of 3.0 probably does not indicate that the child is capable of reading material written at the third-reader level.

A more accurate estimate of the student's ability to read a given piece of literature may be obtained by using a teacher-made test. Such an informal test can be constructed by choosing a 125-175 word selection which is typical of the material (use of a readability formula and knowledge of the content will allow an accurate estimate) and formulating five to eight comprehension questions. The test is administered by having the child read orally at sight from the book as the examiner records on a mimeographed copy of the selection the word perception errors and symptoms of difficulty which the testee manifests. When the reading is completed, the book is closed and the comprehension questions are asked and responded to orally. In most cases, the material will be suitable for instructional purposes if correct word pronunciation is at least ninety per cent (if the student is to read it "on his own," correct word pronunciation should approximate ninety-eight per cent), comprehension is sixty to seventy per cent or better, and few symptoms of reading difficulty are exhibited.

Information concerning the content and the reading and interest levels of a selection can be found in annotated book lists or obtained from librarians. It should be noted, however, that the manner in which they are determined may influence the suggested reading and interest levels. For example, three different readability formulas applied to the same selection may yield two or three different scores. And, the possibility of differing estimates increases when readability is based on expert opinion. It also should be apparent from the preceding comments that attempts to match grade-placement scores from tests with reading levels assigned to material may result in misjudgments.

In summary then, materials which are suitable for each student's levels of reading ability and literary appreciation must be selected if the literature program is to be effective. In order to select suitable material and to guide students' selections, the teacher must have information not only of each child's background, reading ability, and interests, and level of literary appreciation, but of the readability and interest levels of the material as well. Only then can she provide each child with suitable literature.

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4. From the Complexity of Reading to the Clarity of Simple English

DAVID K. STEWART

Articulation Needed

BETWEEN the complexity of beginning reading and the mastery of the English language, a pupil must learn many hundreds of language skills from a dozen or more teachers. Most of the communication skills are taught first by elementary reading teachers. The remainder are taught by English teachers in the junior and senior high schools. Reading is a complex subject. English is clear and simple only to those who have mastered the entire complicated range of language skills. The intricacies of our language can be illustrated by even a cursory examination of the skills patterns that must be mastered by the effective reader. The phonemes and morphemes of grade one pave the way to the formal grammar taught in high school English.

Linguistic competence presupposes the ability to read, write, listen, and speak competently. Each of these four abilities requires a complex of skills. Each is important, but one must be given priority because of its content. This priority goes to reading. Through reading, students acquire seventy-five per cent of their learning in science, social studies, language, and in mathematics courses. General scholastic accomplishment seldom exceeds reading level. Through the developmental reading program, pupils learn the study skills essential to mastery of each of the content subjects.

A modern language program must provide the full range of skills--phonetic analysis, structural analysis, interpretation and comprehension skills, location skills, dictionary usage, and considerable emphasis on skills of critical thinking.

The Change Is Coming

It would be worth the time of any teacher to compare a modern primary basal reading manual with a secondary English text. Such a comparison would indicate that word structure and function, sentence structure and word meanings are taught, by different methods, for different reasons, by teachers of reading and English. A change is taking place, however, in language teaching methods. The change has been a gradual one in elementary reading, but English teachers will have less time to meet the demands of current research. Colleges of education have the same responsibility to teachers of English that they have ably met in the case of the reading teacher. The eighteenth century prescriptive approach to what language "ought to be" is giving way to modern

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descriptive analysis of what language "is" and "does." Paralleling, but preceding, this change in English was a multitude of changes in elementary reading methods. The changes begun in the Forties were mandated by recognition of the essentiality of reading competence to the study skills. The reciprocal relationship of reading competence to achievement in all fields is recognized.

From Reading Skills to Study Habits

The modern reading text provides a sequential skills pattern that leads the learner and the teacher directly into the secondary schools study skills requirements. It is with those skills that the teacher of reading and of English should be primarily concerned. Because of the nature of basal reading materials, the elementary teacher has been directing efforts to this end, but the English program, adhering to the pattern of the old Latin grammar, has not been able to do so. The English program of the past several decades in most elementary and secondary schools has consumed teacher and pupil time in drill and practice on little more than the mechanical structure of our language. The obvious need for articulation of the English program with other curricular fields has been largely ignored. The consequent loss in pupil achievement can be measured by the increasing dropout rate and other evidence of scholastic disorientation.

Skill Strand Articulation

What is to be done? We need an extension upward into the secondary school of practices currently an integral part of elementary reading programs. We need a planned and purposeful study skills program, a program of skills beginning in the kindergarten, a part of every course of study, extending across each subject area and upward through every elementary and secondary grade level. The skills program should include four "strands" of skills.

Skill Strand 1—Sound-Symbol Recognition

Linguists describe the sound system of the language as the most consistent element of its structure. Sound-symbol recognition can and should be taught as a sequential pattern of learnings extending into every subject field and through and beyond the elementary school.

Skill Strand 2—Structural Patterns

The language of the modern curriculum and of society needs to be described and taught. Grammatical form is important and it must not be isolated into a rigid body of mechanical elements. Structural patterns of language must be taught in context if learning is to have purpose.

Skill Strand 3—Conceptualization

Sound-symbol recognition and structural analysis skills are merely prerequisite to the real purpose of communication, the conveyance of meaning. Neither symbol nor structure can give meaning to the learner. Correct concepts, based on understanding of word and phrase meanings, produce comprehension.

Skill Strand 4—Implementation

For the reading and English teachers who accept responsibility for identifying and teaching the first three skill strands there remains the necessity to implement these skills through the length and breadth of the curriculum. Implementation is possible, it is imperative.

Scholastic success is possible only for those learners who can communicate competently. The reading and English teachers cannot do the entire job but it is necessary that they, as specialists, take the major responsibility for identifying and describing the language skill strands in each content area. *"Every teacher a reading teacher"* was no more than a slogan. It hasn't worked. The skill strand approach, built into every lesson plan, can provide a sequential learning pattern for continuity and purpose in the school program of studies. Here is a way of identifying responsibility for language skills that will help every teacher be a teacher of language skills.

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4. Review of Recent Research in Reading in Content Subjects at the Junior High School Level*

EDWARD G. SUMMERS

CONCERN regarding the improvement of reading at the secondary level has been expressed for a considerable period of time.[13, 11, 27, 10, 4]

Even though concern for developing secondary reading programs has been expressed for a considerable period of time and scattered improvement programs have been in existence, the greatest growth in programs at this level has occurred within the last two decades. In the last ten years in particular there has been a virtual explosion of programs reported for the secondary level.[23, 24] Artley[1] predicts that when the history of reading instruction is written it will indicate that one of the major points of emphasis for the 1960's will be the organization and extension of developmental and remedial programs in grades seven through twelve.

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*Complete copies of the report can be secured from the author.

In a recent paper examining the nature and scope of developmental reading in secondary schools, Karlin[8] noted that more reading instruction is being conducted at the junior high school level than at the senior high school level. However, the scope and significance of reading instruction in grades seven, eight, and nine is really not known at this time. Although it is difficult to delineate specific trends, a recent review of literature revealed the following methods of scheduling and programing to meet reading needs in junior high schools:[25] remedial and corrective classes, programs organized within a specific subject, programs conducted in a special laboratory or workshop, and programs conducted with single class groups of various types. Total school reading programs are not generally in operation and specific examples of junior high school programs which are *developmental* in the true sense of the term are rare. It is natural to encounter such diversity in an area where guidelines for instruction are still developing. In addition, as Sheldon[19] has pointed out, the unsettled nature of the junior high school as a means of curriculum organization contributes to the problem in developing reading programs. Few completely satisfactory programs which adequately emphasize teaching of reading in subject areas in the junior high school have been reported. The effective teaching of reading in subject areas is the real challenge in meeting the needs of junior high pupils. However, meeting this challenge presents a complex problem with needed research lacking on variables such as teacher training, correlation of subject objectives with reading objectives, provision of adequate materials, grouping for instruction, measurement and evaluation of outcomes, and establishment of guidelines for administration and supervision of programs once they are in operation.

The status of research in general in secondary reading has been examined by a number of authors including Harris,[5] Smith,[20] Strang,[22] and more recently, Schneyer.[18] The fragmentary nature of research, inconclusive results of studies, lack of coordination and poor control of studies have all been underscored by the foregoing authors. In the junior high school, in particular, Traxler[28] raised twelve questions related to the improvement of reading with tentative answers to the questions based on an admittedly scanty base of available research. Townsend[29] noted recently that there is an increased interest in research at this level, but that studies are still too few and varied to lend themselves to classification. In a later article, reviewing twenty studies on applied reading in subject areas, she concluded that most of the studies reviewed make suggestions for the improvement of practices which are not yet so tangible or detailed as one might hope for.[30] Although studies conducted at adjacent levels and studies conducted in developmental reading programs have relevance to the topic, this review will consider only recent studies of junior high school populations conducted within the context of various subject areas.

Following is a listing of pertinent recent research studies. Scarborough, Bruns and Frazier[17] reported a study conducted with three eighth grade groups in which reading materials and classroom assignments were differentiated according to reading ability. Reeves[16] described a program which attempted to correlate reading work given in eighth grade English with science and social studies assignments. Munro,[14] using seventh grade classes, attempted to determine the effect of differentiating assigned subject reading materials set up to present facts, relationships and generalizations. Jan-Tausch[7] indicated that concrete and abstract thinking are related to reading comprehension. Snavely[21] examined the effectiveness of purpose statements and marginal notes as aids to reading-comprehension. In analyzing vocabulary development Krantz[9] established a high relationship between reading ability and basic skills in the elementary school and success in interpretation of content material in high school.

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Eicholz and Barbe[3] reported a study which explored modified programed learning as a technique for teaching a general core vocabulary to seventh graders.

Using the EDL Reading Versatility Test with over five-hundred eighth graders Sister Mary Theophemia[26] concluded that the over all picture indicated a great lack of flexibility in reading and poor knowledge of how to adjust rate to various purposes and materials. Sister M. Herculone[6] attempted to determine whether or not pupils adjust their rate and technique in reading according to purpose. Witt[32] reported the results of a study, using two equated seventh grade groups, which examined the effect of two techniques to improve ability to conceptualize social studies material. Troxel[31] found that purposes set in reading will influence both speed and accuracy in reading mathematical materials. Curry[2] indicated that an experimental seventh grade group given Gates-Peardon Practice Reading Exercises during arithmetic classes achieved significantly greater gains in reading than a control group, but achievement in arithmetic was not improved. Ramsey[15] evaluated seven junior high subject texts in terms of readability, interest appeal, and conceptual difficulty. Miller[12] examined the readability of junior high school industrial arts textbooks and the reading ability of students using them.

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2. Teaching Reading Skills Through Literature

ELLSWORTH S. WOESTEHOFF

STATEMENTS of the goals of literature study in today's schools invariably reflect concern for developing literary appreciation, enriching personal life, and building habits of independent reading. Only rarely is reference made to the use of literature as a vehicle for teaching reading. Yet, the continuing need for the development of a broad range of reading skills, abilities, and understandings exists at all academic levels.

There is understandable reluctance on the part of teachers to extend the function of literature study to the development of what have become identified as fundamental skills of reading. However, such duality of purpose is not incompatible with effective teaching-learning; in fact, on the basis of what is known of range in achievement, it may tend toward necessity.

Literature appears in a variety of forms, each of which presents unique as well as general reading problems. Rather than attempting a broad, general consideration of these problems, it would seem appropriate to consider one approach to a specific piece of literature. For this purpose, a six-step adaptation of a generalized approach suggested by Bond and Wagner[1] will be applied to chapter six of Mark Twain's, "Huckleberry Finn."[2]

Step 1. Building Background. The continuing narrative, particularly in terms of Huck's attempts to escape from the control of his father should provide sufficient background. Involved will be the reader's knowledge that Huck is alive and the belief of the townspeople that he is dead. In addition, there is the inner conflict between superstition and religion as illustrated by the quicksilver and bread "finding" Huck.

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[1] Guy L. Bond and Eva B. Wagner. *Teaching the Child to Read.* New York: Macmillan Company, 1960.

[2] Mark Twain. *Huckleberry Finn.* New York: Harper and Brothers, 1948.

Step 2. Presenting Vocabulary. In this chapter, the actual vocabulary used should present few problems, since the words are drawn from the speaking vocabulary of two rather uneducated people. The basic problem involves conversion ot dialect, unusual use of relatively common words, and colloquialisms. Most word recognition problems depend upon skill in use of context. For example, in, "I catched a catfish and *haggled* him open with my saw," the context is all revealing, whether the precise meaning be rip, tear, cut or slit.

Knowledge of letter sounds, dictated by simple phonetic principles plays an important part in the recognition of many dialect words, since Twain has made an effort to represent speech by employing basic letter sounds. In addition, there is the constant use of the apostrophe to indicate missing letters. Opportunities for instruction and practice in sound-symbol association are apparent.

Step 3. Setting Purpose. The initial purpose for reading this chapter should probably revolve around the continuing narrative. For the less capable reader, it may be necessary to separate the total chapter into the two basic episodes, setting separate purposes for each. For the more capable reader, emphasis may well be given to consideration of how the characters reveal their superstitious natures.

Step 4. Purposeful Silent Reading. Since time is a significant element, this should preferably be done as an independent out-of-school activity.

Step 5. Discussion. Obviously, this must be in terms of the pre-set purposes, although speculation concerning cause effect relationships or subsequent events may well lead to ancillary areas of study, such as a study of superstition or a more exhaustive historical consideration of the times.

In spite of its brevity and specificity, this approach may well prove fruitful, if only in the sense that for some teachers it extracts the first olive from the bottle. The intent is to show *a way* rather than *the way.*

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2. Can Book Reading Be Made a Habit?

WILLIAM D. BOUTWELL

BOOKS get off to a good start with children. Except for television, books usually are the first form of communication other than the spoken word that a child meets in life. He meets books under the best possible circumstances. The persons he trusts most—his father and mother—introduce the child to books. Reading books is no ordinary experience for children. It is a cherished rite—an homage to the printed page and illustrations—that takes place regularly in millions of homes.

If books get off to such a good start why do they lose out later to television, newspapers, magazines, and perhaps other forms of mass communication? Why does early love of books turn so often into indifference and even hostility?

I will present some current practices and some factors that seem to me to deter reading as a lifetime habit. Then I will turn to practices and factors which can and do work to make books friends for life.

First, the deterrents:

1. The current use of books as major tools in the education process blights the image of books in the child's mind. Learning is hard work. Textbooks, no matter how gaily illustrated, are not designed for pleasure reading. In the early elementary school the child finds in prefabricated Dick and Jane readers none of the excitement he enjoyed in books read to him by his parents. As he reaches junior high school he finds himself burdened by a stock of books. They weigh so much that they can no longer be carried on the hip; they must be carried with two hands on the stomach. One parent found that his daughter was toting fifteen pounds of

books back and forth to school every day. How much would you like television if you had to carry the set around every day?

At a recent convention of audio-visual specialists one speaker called the book an "archaic method or storing and permitting the retrieval of knowledge." Your first reaction may be to resent this charge. On second thought you may welcome it. Education has blackened the good reputation of the book. Ever since Gutenberg, the book has been a slave doing all the dirty and dreary work of education. We have a phrase for it—"hit the books." What booklover would not be cheered to have this grim cry banished from the land! Let us welcome the offer of films, filmstrips, television, microfilms, and all the new hardware to take over the hard work of education. Let them take the drudgery and lumps. Let us take joy in the prospect that books can be freed from bondage to education and that youth can turn to books for pleasure.

2. Reading deterrent number two is bad packaging. The value of attractive packaging stares out at us from the shelves of every supermarket and every drugstore. Of course trade books come out with bright, appealing wrappers. But what a disappointment when the wrapper comes off! And what further discouragement when the book is packaged in library bindings. There they stand in serried ranks on library shelves—dusty red or dingy green—repelling young readers. Look at the contrast with the inviting paperbacks. A San Francisco teacher pointed to her classroom library of hard cover books and said, "Look at them. I can't get the children to read them. They love the same books in paperback." Industry has learned how to package its product for appeal. Better packaging can make books more attractive.

3. Deterrent number three is *book reports.* Many a child has been lost to book reading because he had to write book reports. Fortunately teachers are learning that book reports win more groans than gains. They have discovered that youngsters like to do what their elders do when they read books; they like to discuss them rather than write reports on them.

4. Deterrent number four is class study of *the* classic. This practice is defensible. The inner meanings and subtleties of great books will be missed unless brought to light through study and discussion. Nevertheless, classroom study of *Silas Marner* and other oldtimers has led many a child to give up books for life. As adults we would feel much put upon if we were members of a group asked to read the same book—especially a book written for another audience living in another country in another era and practically in another language.

One cannot deny that profound concepts lie within great books. Nor can one deny that these ideas should be part of one's heritage. There are ways of getting these key ideas without killing interest. One of the best ways has long been recommended by English education leaders. It is the way of the theme unit.

5. The fifth deterrent is non-ownership of books. Few can now say, "These are my textbooks." The books belong to the Board of Education, or the Library. The child who does not buy books does not experience the pride of possession. A study of parents showed that they were nearly unanimous in the opinion that a child is more likely to read a book if he himself buys it. There is little likelihood that we will turn our backs on free textbooks. Nevertheless, some school systems are resolved to make it as easy to buy a book as to buy lunch.

What can be done to push away the road blocks to book reading as a lifetime avocation? Here are some programs for action:

1. *Encourage the American Library Association to push ahead with its proposed study of factors that influence a person to become a book reader—or non-reader.*

2. *Encourage more pilot experiments with paperbacks like that going forward in New Jersey.*

3. *Accept the belief that satisfaction and pleasure with books in the formative years can lead to lifetime reading.*

Pleasure in book reading is more important than the content in particular books. Can our teachers become "salesmen" of books?

4. *Ownership of books encourages reading and stimulates youth to begin building their own libraries.*

5. *Accept the ladder theory of developing taste in books.*

The corollary of this is: Don't worry too much what youngsters read so long as they read. The youngster who for a time reads nothing but sports will grow out of it. Girls will grow out of Kay Tracy and horse fiction.

6. *Remember that the books that pleased one generation will definitely not please succeeding generations.*

7. *Introduce courses in children's literature in every teacher education institution, so that teachers will know what is inside the covers.*

8. *Increase traveling exhibits of new books and in-service provisions to encourage teachers to discover and read new children's books.*

9. *Encourage promotion of reading as a joint project for teachers, librarians, and parents.*

The child who reads well usually comes from a home where he has been read to and where parents read.

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4. What We Read—and Why

Marie Clark

Most adults who read widely got their first taste of books from parents who read to them at an early age. When they entered school, they already knew about the treasures hidden between the covers of books and have never forsaken the search and are still reveling in facts "stranger than fiction." They remember the picture books, the nursery rhymes, the dialect stories, the humorous ones, the adventures of people and of animals, and the Bible stories. Much of the remembered reading was done in school—the James Fenimore Cooper stories, *The Tale of Two Cities, The Three Musketeers, The House of Seven Gables, Robinson Crusoe, The Swiss Family Robinson, Treasure Island,* and *Silas Marner.* If movies and TV have influenced these people, it has not been to detract from reading but to send them to the library to find a much loved volume or to seek a new one.

What can the junior high teacher do to promote lifetime habits of reading? Adolescents are a tribe unto themselves—emotionally, physically, and intellectually immature. The teacher must understand this difficult transition period, accept pupils where they are, and guide them wisely. If a child comes to you still reading comic books, show an interest in what he is doing, lest you lose a potential reader. If he lives with the Hardy boys—as his father did with Tom Swift—give him a volume he has not read, and then more quickly will he read something else you suggest. If the girls are thrilling with Nancy Drew, use the same approach.

Teachers must build up proper concepts. The boy who thought *haircut* when the word *burr* appeared, had not had the experience of rising early to meet the circus train to get a job working with the animals for a free ticket to the big top. History and literature are so interwoven that they cannot easily be separated. What pupil can appreciate *Ivanhoe* who does not know something of the social structure of the Middle Ages? Nor can he understand any better *The Tale of Two Cities* until he knows something of the full import of the French Revolution.

What should teachers have junior high pupils read? First of all, whatever it is, let it be for enjoyment. There is no reason why the learning process cannot be a pleasure instead of drudgery. Let them learn of the past. Then when they find in Poe's "To Helen,"

> The glory that was Greece
> And the grandeur that was Rome,

it will take on a more significant meaning. Teach them the classic myths, and they will see for themselves that the problems with which man is wrestling today have been the problems of the ages. They will see the reason for some of our modern nomenclature, Project Mercury and Project Gemini.

Our land is teeming with legend and folklore, and through books pupils learn of the past, of the people who pioneered. History and biography cannot be severed, and authors have been generous in providing materials for every period in our national life as well as for cultures around the globe.

In an era when emphasis is placed on science, junior high pupils chuckle at the many superstitions that once prevailed. It is tantalizing to realize that before the invention of the microscope man did not know about bacteria that caused the plagues from which they are free—yellow fever, diphtheria, typhoid, rabies, and polio. They have all had penicillin shots and have had the broken arm X-rayed, but they do not know about the people behind these wonders.

Let them learn about the natural world in which they live. Soon without your telling them they will discover the law of "the survival of the fittest." Too they will find that the natural universe has influenced the activities of man.

No alert teacher will overlook the opportunity to teach good character traits. It is surprising how many junior high pupils have not read *The Wind and the Willows, Charlotte's Web,* and *The Incredible Journey,* where companionship and friendship are exemplified. Courage is not taught directly, but a pupil will find it in *Call It Courage* or *Island of the Blue Dolphins.*

One of the chief problems confronting the junior high pupil is that of growing up. Particularly for the girls there is no better choice than *Diary of a Young Girl, Anne Frank.* For boys who like to read of other cultures as well as to confront the fact of growing from boyhood into manhood, suggest *And Now—Miguel.* The underprivileged girl takes a new lease on life when she reads *Blue Willow,* in which Janey always had something to cling to in the face of ever-present, insurmountable barriers. *Pita, The House Under the Hill,* and *Strawberry Girl* have a strong appeal for these same girls.

Today, probably more than ever before, we are faced with the problem of tolerance, particularly relating to one of our national and international prejudices, the racial struggle. To acquaint pupils with the many facets of this conflict, *Ramona, Great Day in the Morning, Shuttered Windows, Willow Hill, The Moved Outers,* and *To Kill a Mocking Bird* are a few stories that will help them see the other fellow's viewpoint.

Books help solve personal problems. No teacher can tell a girl that she is too fat, but she can suggest *In a Mirror. Of Human Bondage* has long been a favorite with high school boys and girls as well as adults, for they identify themselves with Philip and his sensitivity about his club foot.

For whatever reason junior high pupils read, they should see that it is through good stories they can gain a mastery of their own language rather than through vocabulary lists and textbooks on grammar and rhetoric. Along the way there should be many paths that lead them into an understanding and appreciation of poetry. Do not tear a poem to pieces and try to put it back together as you would a shattered piece of precious Dresden, but let its beauty speak for itself. The pupil who has felt the pangs of homesickness listens attentively when Henry van Dyke says, "So it's home again, and home again, America for me!"

Bits of information behind a poem enhance the understanding and do not detract from its sheer beauty. Pupils delight in knowing that the "We" in "The Runaway" are two notable poets, Robert Frost himself and Louis Untermeyer, who had the experience described in the poem.

It is the duty of the junior high teacher to give pupils a broad view of the multiple vistas on the horizon and let them find for themselves, under careful guidance, a basis for discrimination between what is just another book and books that teem with excellence. Introduce them to stories by authors "that had something to say and not that they had to say something." Let them know that you are a reading teacher and not just a teacher of reading. Let the pupils enjoy every moment of their reading experience, but do not stop there. Let them find the implications for themselves. If problems are involved—personal, civic, national, or international—inspire your pupils to act, rather than to sit idly by, for the youth in your class are the legislators and executives of the next generation.

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2. TV Lessons to Stimulate Interest in Reading

MARTHA A. GABLE

IN THE Philadelphia Public Schools TV is used to stimulate reading, to acquaint pupils with interesting books and how to secure them, to arouse interest in the school and public libraries. This is done through a series of programs, requested by English teachers at the junior high school level to supplement classroom presentations of literature.

The series entitled "Books in Action" presents dramatized excerpts from books, plays, and stories on the reading list. A panel of four pupils with their teacher raises questions on plot and character development, analysis of the author's meaning and objectives, and individual reaction to the story. This is conducted in an open-end format to help viewing teachers and classes to continue the discussion after the telecast.

A synopsis of the action to be presented, suggested questions, vocabulary, and information on the book—author, publisher, where available—are sent to schools two weeks before each program.

Another program at the sixth grade level, presented in cooperation with the Pedagogical Library of the Philadelphia Public Schools and the Free Library of Philadelphia, acquaints pupils with the great variety of books available. The format varies, with the telling of the story, a visit with the author (when he or she is available), a visit with the illustrator when this is significant and possible. New books are partcularly featured to alert both pupils and teachers. This series is entitled "TV Bookshelf" and is the third program per week in a sixth grade series of language arts in which the skills of language are presented. Parts of speech, grammar, punctuation, vocabulary, use of dictionary are included.

This program permits time for pupils to fill in proper word, punctuation, or selection of colorful words. It is not a reading program per se; reading is a part of it.

This program has been used successfully also with high school pupils in low achievement groups, who for one reason or another did not learn language skills adequately in lower grades.

Reading or remedial reading courses are not taught by TV for classroom use. In-service education courses for teachers have been used with excellent response. Beginning reading, creative writing for slow learners, and developmental reading have been presented by specialists in these fields. Techniques are presented, plus suggestions for making provisions for individual differences.

A course in linguistics is presented by TV for junior high school pupils. This is an experiment to see whether pupils and teachers may benefit together by this approach.

It should be noted that TV courses for instructional purposes in the Philadelphia

Public Schools: (1) are presented at the request of teachers, (2) are voluntarily viewed, and (3) may be viewed in large groups or in individual classes.

The teachers are carefully oriented for TV utilization. A teacher's workshop of five weeks is presented each summer during July and is free unless college credit is desired. Credit from the University of Pennsylvania or Temple University (graduate or undergraduate) may be earned on payment of a fee, and with the approval of the University adviser.

TV utilization is considered an aspect of team teaching. The TV teacher presents, demonstrates, and provides resource materials. The classroom teacher reviews, reinforces, guides pupils in applications and understanding, and assigns further outside work. The classroom teacher also evaluates pupil achievement. The pupils therefore have the benefit of the skills of two teachers, each specializing in different aspects of the teaching process.

TV sets are supplied to schools which request them and directions given on how and where they are to be used.

The audience for TV lessons has increased in the schools as teachers recognize the values. If lessons are not used they are dropped. Therefore, the Radio-TV staff must produce useful, acceptable programs in order to attract and maintain a school audience. The curriculum specialists who work with the staff in planning programs encourage teachers to view and evaluate them. Evaluation forms are sent to all schools. Teachers who utilize the various programs mail these to the Radio-TV Office at regular intervals. The entire TV operation is one of coordinated, cooperative teamwork.

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3. Research in Reading Habits and Interests at the Junior High School Level

Doris V. Gunderson

OUR TOPIC is the development of reading habits in the junior high school. We have relatively little information from research to tell us how to encourage reading habits. Surveys tell us that we are not a nation of book readers, yet we have almost unlimited books, magazines, and newspapers available and accessible. Surely a well-developed reading habit is a valuable asset to an individual, as it leads him to independence of thought and action. Obviously, the establishment of reading habits should begin in the early years of elementary school with a sustained effort to continue such throughout the child's school career.

That our students have not developed a reading habit is evident in some interesting and rather frightening statistics from Project Talent, a project conducted at the University of Pittsburgh and supported by funds from the Cooperative Research Program of the U. S. Office of Education. One phase of Project Talent is a study of 15-year-olds. Of the total population of 1,619,700 students in 987 schools 944,300 were in grade ten or above, 558,400 in grade nine, 71,400 in grade eight, 13,100 in grade seven, and 2,500 students in grade six or below. Analysis of the data revealed that there "appears to be little relation between number of books reported to have been read and grade placement of the 15-year-olds. The girls, particularly those in high school, report reading more books than do the boys. But the modal response for both boys and girls is still only one to five books per year. This is true at all grade levels."

Such statistics should cause us to wonder what is wrong with us in our work with students; why do they read so few books? If we temporarily overlook the percentage of retarded readers, the figures still leave much to be desired.

The importance of research in the area of reading interests is stated:[1]

> On the assumption that interests are a primary source of pupil motivation, research on reading interests has had significant implications for teaching methods, especially in suggesting points at which instruction should begin in the literature class. While some teachers have regarded interest patterns as the major criterion for determining content and teaching procedures, it also seems necessary that the goals of the teacher be focused on the development of new interests. Estimates of the effectiveness of teaching in improving reading interests have used categories such as the following:
>
> (1) increase in the amount of reading
> (2) variety of subjects read about, or literary types
> (3) maturity of books read

Witty states that surprisingly few comprehensive studies of children's interests are available.[2] Relatively few studies have been reported, particularly at the junior high school level.

Stanchfield reported a study made of boys' reading interests as revealed through personal conferences. The population consisted of boys in grades four, six, and eight—51 boys at each grade level in the Los Angeles City Schools. The investigator found a similarity among the preferences of the three grades by reading interests and reading ability. The category most preferred of the fifty investigated was that of outdoor life. Second and third choices were explorations and expeditions, and sports and games. Characteristics of reading interests were also explored. Again Stanchfield found a similarity of preferences of grade levels.[3]

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[1] Henry C. Meckel. "Research on Teaching Composition and Literature," *Handbook on Research on Teaching*, N. L. Gage, Editor, Chicago: Rand, McNally and Company, 1963, pp. 966-1006.

[2] Paul A. Witty, "The Role of Interest," *Development in and Through Reading*, Sixtieth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part I. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1961, pp. 127-143.

Shores has reported results of studies[4] dealing with interests of junior and senior high school students, comparing them with results of similar studies made with elementary school populations. A similar classification scheme and methodology used in four studies indicated a "remarkable degree of consistency of reading interests through the grades from 4 to 12." In each of the studies mystery, followed by adventure, was the most prominent reading interest. On the basis of the returns a three place classification scheme was devised. Fourteen major categories were selected to contain the responses; these were Literature, Social Science, Science, Personal and Social Adjustment, Recreation and Hobbies, Vocations, the Arts, Religion, Psychology, Mathematics, Philosophy, Language Arts, Money, Economics and Banking, and Schools. Teachers also were questioned and gave their judgments of what students would read about, ask about, or look up. Neither junior nor senior high school teachers' reports of students' reading interests were as close to the students' own choices as were those of elementary school teachers. High school teachers' choices in literature were similar to those of students, except that teachers underestimated the strong interest in mystery stories. Teachers also seriously underestimated reading interest in the social studies. Shores felt that the tendency of high school teachers to see students' interests in terms of their own field of specialization accounted for some of the discrepancy between their reports of student interests and the students' reports.

Soares reported a study[5] concerned with reading interests of junior high school students; the purpose was to determine whether short stories, rated high in interest by junior high school students, contained elements which did not appeal equally to all students when grouped on the basis of intellectual ability, grade level, or sex. The investigator found some general results: the narrative type of story told by an omniscient author who stressed the theme of bravery and cowardice rather than plot or character was preferred by all groups. The favorite story was realistic and contemporary, most frequently about animals, sports, or teen-age problems. The most interesting story stressed physical action and contained one main character who was a very attractive teen-age boy of unknown status; it was written in a clear style with a single unifying effect.

A number of articles dealing with reading interests appears in journals, but few of them would qualify as research if appropriate criteria are used as a basis for judgment.

In an article in *Every Week*, a publication for secondary school students, novelist Richard McKenna answered the question, "How can one develop an interest in reading?" with this statement: "Interest in reading is simply a special form of a more general interest in being alive and experiencing the world around us." He goes on to state that when one reads, a kind of vicarious, symbolic experiencing of the world occurs which breaks through the time and space barriers which limit experience of the flesh. The barrier is broken by the power of the creative imagination, one of the specifically human qualities setting man apart from other animals. McKenna's advice to the student who lacks an interest in reading, yet realizes the importance of it, is a reiteration familiar to most of us. Reading itself takes precedence over the quality of what is read: McKenna advises students to sample everything in a library until a book is found which will arouse sufficient interest that the entire book is read. The student who searches only for pleasure and entertainment and forgets about duty ultimately will find a book which will take hold of him. In "Reading: The Door Which is Never Shut," from *Every Week,* McKenna says:

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[3] Jo. M. Stanchfield, "Boys' Reading Interests as Revealed Through Personal Conferences," *The Reading Teacher*, 16: 41-44. Sept., 1962.

[4] J. Harlan Shores, "Reading Interests and Informational Needs of High School Students," *The Reading Teacher*, 17:536-544. April, 1964.

[5] Anthony T. Soares, "Salient Elements of Recreational Reading of Junior High School Students," *Elementary English*, 40:843-845, December, 1963.

> The next such book will be easier to find and before long you will have the habit of reading, which is what is most important. Make the whole world of ideas your field. Regard each new idea you meet with friendly or hostile interest, but never with indifference. Whenever you turn your back on an idea, you close a door in your mind and you may never again get it open.

This would appear to be a good starting place; however, we must attempt to build, extend, and expand these interests if we are to achieve our goal of turning out educated individuals who are thinking citizens, reading not only widely, but also wisely and well.

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E2. PERSONALIZED READING

1. Encouraging Personal Reading in Junior High School

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TO PERSUADE STUDENTS that reading can help with solutions to their problems, give a broader, more accurate picture of a situation, provide pleasurable experiences, and equip them to meet life more effectively is not just a matter for telling. To most students, words are just words. Too often, statements of benefits from reading—true as they may be—fail to spur students to read.

Perhaps it ought to be *permitting* rather than *encouraging* personal reading in junior high school. For the junior high years are a "golden age of reading" for many students, provided the teacher does not discourage extensive personal reading and provided books are available.

What, then, does a teacher do to keep the shine of this "golden age of reading" for his students? An answer might be that he bases his teaching and assignments on the interests, needs, and abilities of his students. This is true, but does it answer the problem fully? How does he encourage a student who detests being asked to open a book to make an initial venture in reading? How does he moti-

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vate students who have gotten little pleasure and few answers important to them from reading to reach for a book for enjoyment or for the answer to a problem? In short, how is a willingness and desire to read promoted among students?

Something to Read

Students should have immediately available to them a large selection of interesting, worthwhile, attractive, and readable books. These should be books on varying levels of difficulty so that all can find something to read. They should be books on a wide range of interests so that all will *want* to read.

A well-stocked school library easily accessible throughout the school day may suffice for the student who already reads books of his own selection extensively. For the student who is reluctant to attempt personal reading, a classroom library is also essential.

A classroom collection of one hundred to one hundred and fifty individual titles on six or eight week loan from the school library can make the difference in whether less verbal students share in this "golden age" of personal reading. These books are closer and easier to get to. There are fewer of them; they relate more closely to what is being taught as well as to the interests and abilities of this group of students, and so it is easier to find something to read. The teacher is closer at hand when the student is looking for a book and so, if he needs it, the pupil can have the help of someone who knows him well. The books and periodicals in this library are changed regularly as the class moves on to a new unit of study and so there are frequently new materials from which to select.

Students should be allowed time to browse and to read materials they have selected. Personal reading is as important a part of classroom instruction as is required reading. Personal reading by each student is too important to relegate to the summer vacation or even to school nights. Some class time must be found and devoted to personal selection of books and to personal reading. If not, how can schools claim to be producing adults who not only *can* but *will* read?

A Teacher to Emulate

A teacher who is enthusiastic about his own reading and who talks with his class about some of the things he reads, transmits his enthusiasm to his students. Through reading, the teacher also finds answers to his problems, gets a more accurate picture of a situation, enjoys pleasurable experience, and better equips himself to meet life effectively. It is important that his students know this. Personal reading is not just for students!

The teacher who also has read and continues to read books written expressly for young adults stands a much better chance of being able to motivate his students' personal reading. It is exceedingly difficult for a student to share a reading experience with his teacher if the teacher knows little about what the author has to offer students. While no teacher can probably expect to read all the books written for his students, every teacher needs to read regularly the books which his students are reading.

A teacher who talks to a student about his reading while the rest of the class is working or when the class is not in session does a great deal to motivate that student to read more. Not just, "What are you reading now?" but, "What do you think of the main character? What do you think of the author's ability to describe a theme? What was the most exciting part for you? What will you read next?"

A group of students, together with the teacher, can undertake promotion of increased student activity in personal reading. Intriguing excerpts from a story might be read to the class to encourage some student to charge out that story and complete the reading. Short book lists can be posted in the classroom. Topics should change frequently. One week it might be, "Three Tales of Adventure at Sea;" the next week, "Five Books About Sports Cars and Racing;" the next, "Four Books About Buried Treasure." Short, interesting student comments about books might be forwarded to the school newspaper. Teachers can encourage the school news staff to publish these comments. A group of students or the teacher might feature a "book-of-the-week." This book would be introduced at the beginning of the week and given prominent display throughout that week.

A teacher needs to get personal to encourage personal reading. Since he can't talk with individual students as often as he'd like, he and his students sometimes resort to writing notes. A section of the bulletin board is reserved for these notes. A note posted for a particular student might read, "Chuck, if you enjoyed reading *A Night To Remember*, you might enjoy reading *Day of Infamy* by the same author." A note by a student who has read a book he liked might read, "*The Pearl Lagoon* is an exciting story about pearl diving and life in the South Seas. I think boys would like this book."

Activities that Can Spark

The formal book report or the requirement for a satisfactory mark in the course are not devices that stimulate extensive personal reading. Both are much too impersonal. The teacher who would promote readers who *can* read and *want* to read tries other activities. A few suggestions for motivating interest in personal reading follow. Teachers use a variety of these and other ways to promote "readers" among their students.

Student Goal Chart. Following a conference with his teacher, each student records what he hopes to accomplish in personal reading. As he completes each of the goals he has set down for himself, he checks that goal on his record.

Student Diary. Each student keeps a "Personal Reading Diary." This can also serve as a source for determining interests if a pupil feels free to record *all* he reads.

Book Discussion Groups. The class is divided into groups of five or six students. Each pupil brings a book he has read with him and talks to his group about that book. Pupil recommendations are frequently more effective than anything a teacher may say. By dividing into small groups, more can be accomplished in a shorter period of time.

Tape Recording. A club or small group discussion on a book or author can be tape recorded and played to a class to stimulate student interest.

Book Selling. Either the teacher or a student might give a one or two minute "sales pitch" for a book he would like members of the class to read.

Book Program. A "Festival of Books" might be planned as an all-school, or classroom activity. Visitors would be invited; guest and student talks would be given; books would be exhibited with student commentaries, and books would be sold to students.

Preparation of Reading Lists. Students can help the teacher in the preparation of reading lists for particular purposes. Using the reading they have completed as reference, they might devise lists titled:

Books That Are Thin But Nourishing
What To Read In Summer
Classics You Might Enjoy
Adventure Stories That Increase In Challenge To Reading Skill
Books Boys Like
Books To Read On Skin Diving

Interview. Students can be asked to interview successful business and professional men in their community about books which they have especially enjoyed reading.

The activities just cited are few in number. Individual teachers have devised many more. Activities found most successful rely heavily on individual student selection, reading, and commentary. Pupils asked to participate in planning and evaluating what they read are more inclined to *want* to read. A pupil who reads what few others or no one else has read is more inclined to feel it is important to share what he has read with others. He is not competing with the rest of the class who have all read the same thing; he is making his own unique contribution to class discussion.

The junior high school student who undertakes extensive personal reading is encouraged by a wide variety of reading materials readily accessible. He is encouraged by a teacher who shares enthusiasm for reading with him. He is stimulated to read by classroom activities that have personal meaning for him. This junior high student—like others before him—has entered the "golden age of reading."

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B. JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

1. Developing Lifetime Reading Habits— A Continuous Process

MARGARET A. ROBINSON

"IF THE elementary school had a better developmental reading program," said a junior high school teacher, "the results of our leisure reading program would improve." With this statement we agree, and admit that the crucial reading experiences of the primary grades especially can lay the foundation for the reading habits of later life. However, the responsibility does not rest wholly in the elementary school but must be shared with the home, high school, and college, for the development of lifetime reading habits is a continuous process from early childhood through adolescence and into college years. Let us trace briefly this development.

An inexperienced teacher may expect that all preschool children will own story books and that parents will read and tell them stories. She may expect them to recognize many words and to value and appreciate books. In reality, it may not be so, for in some homes there is not a book or a paper and in others hundreds of books. The teacher, then, has to know her pupils and their basic needs in order to supply the experiences which will stimulate interests that can be satisfied through reading.

> "Bookes give not wisdom where none
> was before,
> But where some is, there reading makes
> it more."
> (Sir John Harrington, Elizabethan epigrammatist)[1]

Let us tour a junior school briefly to observe the development of reading. Here in the kindergarten rooms are library corners of interesting books for browsing and many indications of incidental and informal reading. Here is a grade one class not ready for formal reading trying to bridge the gap from kindergarten to grade one. Around the room are evidences of many activities. There are lists, illustrations, and record charts about their trips. Obviously, the experience approach method is used and reading is taught informally from the charts. The expeditions, stories read, and lessons taught have given these pupils an incentive to make up their own stories which individually they dictate to their teacher. When they can dictate in sentences the teacher makes a book of each story. We see a pile of these illustrated, personalized reading books which the authors treasure and use in their reading parties. Will these pupils ever become lifetime readers? One wonders but knows that in this room there is a great love and enthusiasm for reading aroused because the children are reading their own stories based on their own interests. Here, also, reading skills such as main ideas, picture clues, sequence of ideas, and evaluation, are initiated.

Though there are many enterprises involving reading in each grade, basal readers are used for formal instruction to insure the continuous development of reading skills. Each class has from two to four reading groups with a certain amount of flexibility from group to group and room to room. Children are taught to set their own purposes for reading. After the silent reading there is much group discussion. When the pupils proceed to the next grade, they continue on their reading level.

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[1] Robertson Davies. "A Voice from the Attic": Alfred A. Knopf Inc., 1960.

Our school library is of inestimable value in the teaching of reading. All classes from kindergarten through six have weekly periods in the library and eight classes have longer periods for individualized instruction. We all realize that teaching skills is not enough, that the habit of reading is dependent also on the pupils' interests, the suitability and availability of the reading material, and the knowledge and enthusiasm of the teacher.

To aid us, teachers from kindergarten through high school answered three questions. A few typical answers follow:

1. What reading habits are you trying to develop in your room?
    a. Teach that books are a source of pleasure and information.
    b. Teach reading skills carefully in order that they may become habits. Teach major skills, vocabulary, comprehension, organization, location of information, etc., and their subskills.
    c. Teach pupil to read discriminately and to develop literary taste.
    d. Teach the importance of library membership.
2. How can you develop lifetime reading habits?
    a. Use children's interests as springboards into reading.
    b. Appreciate and enjoy children's literature.
    c. Group children according to needs, abilities and interests. Teach individuals too.
    d. Make the lesson enjoyable, alive and vivid by class discussion, acting, illustrating, etc.
3. How might a teacher prevent, inadvertently, a pupil from acquiring lifetime reading habits?
    a. Teacher lacks enthusiasm.
    b. Teacher lacks knowledge of children's literature. Teacher is not a reader.
    c. Teacher does not know the skills nor how to teach them.
    d. Lessons are lifeless, careless, unplanned. Appraisal and evaluation are neglected.

Thus the elementary school strives to lay the foundation for developing lifetime reading habits and the high schools and colleges take up the challenge. Our united goal is to develop a wide, permanent carry-over interest in reading to adulthood, despite the strong competition of radio, television, and movies. Hand in hand with the development of permanent interest must go the development of literary taste. Hence, we must develop discriminating readers, people who (Robertson Davies says)[2] "read for pleasure, but not for idleness, who read for pastime but not to kill time, who love books, but do not live by books." We should demonstrate the personal value books can have for each student and show him that books can open wonderful new worlds for him.

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2. Linguistics and Reading Problems at the Junior High School Level

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ABOUT THREE years ago the following headline appeared in *The New York Times,* attached to an article concerning the New York City School System.

10,000 in 7th Grade Found
4 Years Behind in Reading

In other words, a tremendous number of boys and girls of twelve years of age cannot read well enough to do the studying

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required beyond the third grade.

Two years later a new superintendent of that same school system insisted, "There is just no sense at all in pretending to teach world history and biology to a tenth grade student who reads at the fourth grade level." And he proposed, for "the child who slips behind in learning to read," to "put him in a class half as big, and double the time spent on reading . . . because *he has to learn to read.*"

These quotations seem to indicate first, a school situation that may be a more general and continuing problem, and, second, the belief that *more* teachers and *more* time to do *more* of what is *now* being done constitutes the only remedy.

It is true, I believe, that the child who has been in school for six years, enters, at the junior high school level, academically, as well as physically and emotionally, an especially critical period. Here, often for the first time, he is faced with the necessity of serious study-reading of a considerable range of subject-matter content. For this subject-matter content he must produce results of knowledge and understanding derived solely from his reading.

Inadequacies in his reading competence will inevitably show themselves at this time and make it impossible for him to meet the reading demands of this school level. One can, of course, blame the textbooks and demand that the books be brought to the level of the pupil's reading competence. If, however, such a realistic reading testing does not occur at the junior high school level it is simply postponed to a later time and a more difficult body of material—to the senior high school, to the college, or to the reading level required for a job other than that of unskilled labor. Potential "dropouts" often can be identified by such reading difficulties at the beginning of the junior high school level.

The remedy proposed in the quotations seems limited to setting up smaller classes for reading instruction and to doubling the time given to these classes. There seems to have been no questioning of the *materials* used as the content of the teaching for these smaller classes and doubled time.

It is of these two matters—the realistic testing situation at the junior high school level and the practical preparation of the pupils to meet it successfully that I would bring a consideration of the knowledge and understanding achieved in the field of linguistics.

The real test of whether the elementary school pupil has actually learned to read during grades 1 to 6 must ultimately be the efficiency with which he meets the challenge of the serious study-reading of the junior high school subject-matter content. His "readiness" for the kind of reading required at this level is the function of the reading teaching that precedes. In other words, the beginning steps of elementary reading and the whole of the reading activities of the "transfer" stage must be analyzed, planned, programed, and measured in terms of the competencies essential for the kind of reading required for full success at the junior high school level.

Some specific examples from our actual classroom materials "developed upon linguistic principles" for the teaching of beginning reading through the transfer stage may help to put more precise meaning content into these general statements. These examples should also show that the goals set and the series of small steps toward their attainment as set forth in these materials do not require any "forced feeding." The materials have been used with hundreds of "slow learners." These examples should also serve to contradict the many assertions that our "linguistic approach" is a "segmental method" with the "same basic aim as the phonic method of teaching reading;" the assertion that it is a "phonemic approach to reading" with "word lists as the basic learning material;" the assertion that it applies the "principle of matching letters with sounds;" and the assertion that it "ignores meaning" and centers the attention of the pupil on formal and mechanical features."

As a matter of fact the *primary objective* of our materials built upon linguistic understanding *is the ability to read for meanings.* Reading for meanings requires not only that the pupil must grasp the meanings of the words he reads and the meanings attached to the grammatical structures in which these words are placed, but also and especially that he must build

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up as he proceeds all the situational meanings that come from the succession of sentences in each story unit. Even from the very beginning of the first reading lesson with only three content words, *cat, fat, Nat,* (and the two structures words *is* and unstressed *a* as in *a cat*) there is some meaning added to the whole with each sentence. The pupil must grasp this cumulative meaning.

The very first reading unit is the following.

Nat is a cat.
Nat is fat.
Nat is a fat cat.

The first sentence specifies the meaning of the word *Nat* by identifying it with the well-known animal, *cat*. For us this identification is that *Nat* is the cat's name.

Nat is a cat.

The second sentence adds to the meaning by asserting that this particular cat, *Nat,* has a special physical feature to be described as *fat*.

Nat is fat.

The third sentence adds more to the meaning by bringing the description and the identification together in one summary sentence.

Nat is a fat cat.

The three sentences are tied together into a sequence by the repetition of the word *Nat*.

To be a "sequence" of sentences in our use of the term there must always be in the sentences some type of "sequence signals." Here the repetition of the name *Nat* serves the purpose. A discourse is a sequence of sentences tied together linguistically by "sequence signals."

Each of the two sentences after the first adds something to the "growing" meaning. The last sentence brings together what we have called the "cumulative" meaning of this unit. All sequences of sentences that belong to a unit as shown by sequence signals have not only individual sentence meaning but also this "growing accumulation of meanings."

Only through continued and consistant practice in the reading of "sequences of sentences" in units of growing size and complexity does the pupil build up responses to these cumulative meanings as they develop, and make maximum progress toward what we have called "productive" reading. Real reading is never a passive receptive process of recognizing written words and the grammatical structures in which these words occur. It is not even an active responding to all the signals of meaning actually represented in the writing. Real reading demands that the reader build up and carry along such a complete understanding of the cumulative meaning of the sequences of sentences that he habitually supplies, fills in, the patterns of tone (intonation), the special stresses, and the pauses of grouping that the live language of speech uses but which are either not indicated at all by our writing system or only crudely hinted at by our present system of punctuation. Real reading is thus "productive" reading.

Oral reading with "expression" is not only the avoiding of a monotone; nor are the variations of pitch in their sequences haphazard and lawless. They fit into certain major patterns characteristic of the English language. These patterns of intonation are not solely related to the separate sentences, but also and especially to the relations between sentences as they follow one another in a discourse.

Children do not need to be taught to use the intonation patterns of English. As a matter of fact, fitting into the tone patterns of the intonation sequences of English is perhaps the very first thing the child learns of the language. Most normal children of five speak their language using all the intonation patterns of their linguistic community. Usually, however, neither the pupils nor the teachers (if they have not had contact with the formal study of linguistics or of speech) are aware of what the major English intonation patterns are. Problems arise with pupils because, at the beginning of learning to read, in their struggle to recognize the written representations of the words, they often develop habits of pronouncing the words as separate items rather than as words in the sequences of utterances in real "talk."

Children will use the patterns of intonation naturally whenever they realize the meaning of what they are saying. Oral reading must become the telling of the meanings which they have received from

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the written sequences of sentences. To put it another way, their intonation will demonstrate whether they have really realized vividly the meanings or are simply pronouncing words which, as a succession of groups, do not stimulate for them any recognition responses. The case for a considerable amount of properly directed and properly used oral reading from the very beginning rests primarily on the need to develop the habits of "productive" reading.

One other matter deserves attention in respect to developing in the pupils the ability to *read* for meanings. The most commonly used Pre-primers, Primers, and First Readers for teaching the first stages of learning to read have large pictures* on practically every page—pictures that show the situations of each "story." These pictures give meaning to the words and sentences in the reading text. In fact on many pages of the pre-primers the words and sentences have no real meaning without the pictures. From all the reading books of our linguistic series pictures have been excluded as a matter of principle in order to compel the pupils to build the habit of seeking the meaning, even the situational meaning, in the words and sentences of the written text alone. The usual use of pictures in the teaching of beginning reading builds the habit of looking first at the pictures and then guessing at the identification of the words used. We would emphasize the necessity of completely reversing the process—having the pupils *read* for the meanings, and then, as a means of strengthening their vivid imaginative realization of the situation, having them draw their own pictures to depict parts of the situation or some of the persons involved as they individually imagine them to be. Many of the very slow learners do very well with such exercises and certainly do not need to have ready made pictures as crutches.

At this point an objection will probably arise. With some justice one may insist that the immediate problem for the junior high school is the great number of seventh graders who can read at the fourth, or fifth, or even sixth grade level but who cannot read well enough to meet the realistic test of the serious study-reading that the various subject-matter texts require. He will then point out that I have been concerned with the child at the beginning stage of reading and the materials and teaching practice that, for beginning readers has served to lead up to the mature reading habits and competancies required, and that normal "beginning readers" require at least five years of reading practice to reach this level.

I offer two comments and suggestions, based on a limited experience with small groups of these twelve and thirteen year olds.

First, these pupils cannot profitably break into this series of readers in the middle or near the end. The sequence of the significant contrasts embedded in the materials has been "programed" in small steps so that the responses at each level depend on the habits established earlier. To be effective the pupil must start at the beginning and proceed through the materials as organized. For seventh graders the amount of time necessary for each step will be greatly reduced and should progressively decrease as pupils realize more clearly the steps of their own growing skill. This realization must come from the *doing* itself, *not* from attempts of the teacher to *tell him* about what he is doing.

Second, as I have insisted elsewhere, a person can read insofar as he can "respond" to the language signals of his native language code when these signals are represented by patterns of graphic shapes *as fully* as he can to these same language signals represented by patterns of vocal sounds. Stress the words "respond as fully," for the most significant base from which to measure reading ability must be the receptive language control of the person being measured. Reading ability must be evaluated against a particular language ability. Any junior high school pupil's reading competence must be evaluated in terms of that pupil's receptive ability in the English language—his ability to respond to the "talk" addressed to him.

All reading at any level in the schools should be evaluated in terms of progress toward active "productive" reading and some type of vivid imaginative realization.

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*The Scott, Foresman Series—The three Pre-primers, and the Primer—have a total of 351 pages with a picture on every page. The First Reader, out of a total of 187 pages, has 171 pages with pictures and 16 without pictures.

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B3. PUTTING LINGUISTICS TO WORK

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1. Linguistics and the Teaching of Junior High School Reading

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TEACHERS of English suffer from perennial anxiety, because they are unable to accomplish with all of their students everything which they would like to achieve, and which society would have them achieve. In the early secondary schools, we should like to make every student a competent reader and we should like also to influence him to read for pleasure and to develop good taste and sensitivity to literature. The English curriculum is as broad as the culture of man; reading is only a part of it; the goals in reading cannot be fully reached.

Can linguistics help the teacher and the student to deal with this dilemma? Our answer, like the field of English itself, must be broad; our acquiescence hopeful but qualified. A study of the science of language—if, indeed there is such a systematic science—should help the teacher to know more about what he is teaching. To the student, linguistic science would be helpful if it were a clearly defined body of rules and facts, and if the student were intellectually capable of mastering and applying it within a reasonable time.

I have not been convinced through lectures by the advocates of descriptive and structural linguistics and transformational grammar nor by books and articles in the field that the conditions above have been met. It is a great temptation, therefore, to say, "Come and offer us help when you have reached some agreement about the facts and the rules." Of course you and I will not do this. We are disturbed and curious; we read and listen, because we also know how complicated and splendid is our English language, and how very hard it is to teach students to use and understand it reasonably well. We come from our sessions with the scientists of language stimulated and eager to do better. Moreover, the linguistic scientists force us to look at basic causes and processes. They ask questions although they do not always provide answers upon which they all agree.

What is useful for us to know in linguistics? Everything will be useful to us as cultivated and curious people. What will be useful to the pupils? We must try things out and help ourselves to discover what will be significant and useful to pupils of various kinds and levels of competence. The linguists remind us that written language is a symbolism of a symbolism; silent thoughts come first, and the human creature tries to express them through the symbols of speech. This symbolism is not precise. James E. Devine *(4)* suggests that, "Meanings and the sounds that represent their meanings are

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far from simple matters. Unfortunately, meanings of words are elusive and ever-shifting. Around every word there is a fringe of meanings." Thus, the first oral effort at communication is difficult and inexact. It is well for us to be reminded of this, both in our attempt to communicate with our students and to receive their efforts at communication. Written language is an attempt to record speech, using an entirely new set of symbols for what is already symbolic, in order to extend the audience of the speaker, and to store up facts and ideas for listeners far away in time and space. Perhaps the most important contribution of descriptive linguistics is the reminder that all aspects of the language acts are closely related—speech, listening, thinking, reading, writing.

A practical outcome of such a reminder might be to make us ask ourselves whether we sometimes overemphasize silent reading, whether we sometimes neglect the opportunity that reading aloud would provide for appealing to that first symbolic skill which the infant learned, and which our teen-aged pupils love to practice above all other activities. The teacher, at least, should find it profitable to study and analyze the signals provided in oral language which the punctuation of written language so meagerly simulates. Sutherland *(10)* speaks of four degrees of stress (primary, secondary, tertiary, and weak); of infinite variations in pitch; and of junctures or pauses between words (transitional, fading, rising, and sustentional).

Most successful teachers present a new poem to a class by reading it aloud. If we read aloud well—and we should all read aloud very well indeed—we can help the class to understand the meaning of the poem by the use of the techniques which Sutherland lists. Variations in volume, richness, and emotional color of the voice are also essential. In teaching Browning's "Memorabilia," for instance, effective techniques of reading aloud should be very useful in establishing the simple meaning of the work. Intensive discussion after the reading will help pupils to discover deeper meanings. Only God and Robert Browning, perhaps, fully know the secret in the poet's heart.

Memorabilia

Ah, did you once see Shelley plain,
  And did he stop and speak to you?
And did you speak to him again?
  How strange it seems, and new!
But you were living before that,
  And you are living after,
And the memory I started at—
  My starting moves your laughter!
I crossed a moor, with a name of its own
  And a use in the world no doubt,
Yet a hand's-breadth of its shines alone
  'Mid the blank miles round about:
For there I picked up on the heather
  And there I put inside my breast
A moulted feather, an eagle-feather—
  Well, I forget the rest.

Robert Browning

To a lover of Browning, this is a deeply moving poem, full of the passionate loyalty of the young poet to the memory of the romantic rebel, full of his astonished contempt for the fortunate man who had actually seen Shelley without appreciating his extraordinary experience. The poem should appeal to young readers who are at an age when hero worship accompanied by scorn for insensitivity is a common sentiment. Nevertheless, without containing one difficult word, "Memorabilia" is a most difficult poem, full of compression, elisions, and half-stated implications. To what extent is our study of linguistics useful to us in teaching it? In helping pupils to see what is left out, and actually to follow the simple meaning, Sutherland's structural linguistics may be useful.

(1) Transitional juncture (slight pause between words) (+)
(2) Fading junctive (end of statement) (↓)
(3) Rising juncture (beginning of sentence) (↑)
(4) Sustentional juncture (pause after prolonged syllable) (→)

The symbols ∧ ∨ ⁄ and ∖ are used for the various degrees of stress.

"Ah, → did + you + once → see + Shelley + plain (↑)

So I have interpreted Sutherland's marking system of stress and junctures. Dr. Sutherland may disagree, and you, too, may feel that stresses and pauses should be made differently. The great pause in the poem—the point between stanzas two and three where Browning moves into the magnificent metaphor of the eagle's feather found on the moor—needs a very special symbol, I think. And how would we mark the bitter revulsion implied in the angry pause between the last two lines—

"A moulted feather, an eagle's feather—
Well, I forget the rest."

I have worried this small example of the use of structural linguistics because it illustrates one of the major points I am offering for your consideration. Linguistics is not, as yet, an exact scientific system. We should not all agree on the scoring of stress and junctures in this poem. Nor would we agree on the pitch, pace, and variety in volume necessary for the most effective oral interpretation. (Nor, of course, would we agree on what Browning really means, for poetry, like painting and music, is subject to a variety of interpretations.) However, I believe that the *study* of these matters is useful because it directs our attention to the need for careful preparation before we read aloud. If scoring a poem will help a teacher, particularly a teacher inexperienced or insecure about reading aloud, he should try it. Will such a scoring system be useful to pupils? I should like to try it with some pupils, certainly. It might be just the device to lead some of them to give attention to improving their understanding of what they read, as they strive to read aloud effectively. It could also be used, perhaps, to help boys and girls to give attention to improving the effectiveness of their speech.

"Memorabilia" requires and deserves further analysis. The semantics aspects of linguistics should be helpful in discussing, for instance, how the word *plain* is used in the first line. The misunderstanding between the poet and his companion is an excellent example of the difficulty of communication referred to *(4)*. Stanza two, with its compression and sudden change of mood requires analysis and thought. This brings us to sentence analysis, and to grammar.

The question of grammar, whether descriptive, structural, or transformational, is one before which I quail, lacking the arrogance and certainties of the various advocates of each system. I must confess to a certain pleasure in the study and use of traditional grammar, whatever its inadequacies. One of my favorite reference books over the years has been Long's lucid and fascinating *College Grammar*. Traditional grammar, of course, has been the focus of attack by the linguists from the beginning. "The principles, the procedures, the definitions of formal grammar are unsound," says Fries *(5)*. At the time when descriptive linguistics was in the ascendency, we got the impression that any analysis was useless. The study of formal grammar, indeed, has declined so sharply in New York during the past twenty years that very few young teachers of English nowadays have training in any grammatical system.

However, the structural and transformational grammarians have begun to reemphasize the importance of analysis of sentences and words. Some of them are beginning to see certain merits even in traditional grammar *(3)*. The recent publications of Paul Roberts *(8)* introduce a well worked out system of grammar, with a number of sentence patterns devised from the transformation of a simple basic pattern. Roberts uses some of the terms of traditional grammar, and adds some useful modifications. It will be interesting to see how successful his new English series, designed for use in the elementary grades, will be in giving pupils a sound grasp of language.

There still seem to be gaps between the teacher of literature and reading, and some of the linguists. In an article in College English in October 1960, Paul Roberts said, "It may be that . . . those whose major professional commitment is aesthetic can find no common ground with those whose commitment is scientific." In the introduction to his new series *(8)* Roberts uses poetry as the basis of his instruction in language analysis. His purpose, however, does not include the aesthetic. In discussing reading instruction he says,

> The teacher should settle for nothing less than an accurate report on what is written there. What is the verb? What is the subject and what the object? How are they doing whatever it is they are doing? It is to be noted particularly that this series takes the point of view that

> the child's attitude toward the prose and poetry is his private affair. . . . It is a reasonable assumption that at least a large proportion of children will appreciate good literature if they understand it, and, conversely, that they haven't much hope of appreciating it if they don't understand it. But appreciation is in some sense a private matter, between the individual and the poem.

Here, the teacher of English will, I believe, differ from the aloof attitude of the linguistics scientist. While we know that we cannot always succeed in getting pupils to love good reading, we want, I think, to try to do so. Motivation and enthusiasm in presentation will be as important to us as clarity. We will hope that as many pupils as possible will respond emotionally as well as understand the content. It happens rather often that some linguists refuse responsibility for the functions that teachers of reading and literature regard as important. To this degree linguistics science is not useful to us. However, there is great variety in attitude. Few linguists go as far as this: "The linguist is concerned with structure, not meaning and thought"*(9)*. Just how one can separate structure from meaning and thought may well puzzle us, since one supposes language exists only for communicating those elements.

There remains the question as to whether the new approaches to grammar will be more useful than traditional grammar was in helping children to read more effectively. In order to be completely logical one should first ask, "Which linguistics system of grammar?" In a recent speech *(3)* Chomsky is quoted as saying,

> Which grammar shall we teach? We should teach a generative grammar, a system of rules determining the relationship of deep and surface meanings; which generative grammar should we teach? Whichever one is correct. . . . Grammar should not be taught in schools as a closed and finished system. How little we really know about the properties of language should be recognized by students, as well as by teachers.

This advice is rather hard to follow, on the junior high school level. Surely we should teach some system before we encourage too much skepticism. Without attempting to settle this enigma, I am inclined to believe that for some students at least some syntactical analysis is useful in improving understanding. To return to "Memorabilia," it would help the pupils to grasp the poet's basic meaning if they could be led to see that stanza number two deals with four basic ideas. (I agree with the linguists that the abandonment of the old definition of a sentence as one complete thought is sensible.)

"But you were living before that (1)
And you are living after (2)
And the memory I started at (3)
My starting moves your laughter" (4)

The sentence is compound, with a relationship among the various parts which may be made clearer by analysis. It is even interesting to note that, strictly speaking, this is not a conventionally "correct" sentence, that the subject of the final line has an indefinite antecedent. If grammatical analysis is properly done, it should contribute to understanding, even if students do not completely master grammatical theory. Discussion, if it is stimulating, should contribute to understanding.

Analysis of the two final stanzas, punctuated as a single sentence, is certainly not easy, whatever grammatical system is used.

I crossed a moor, with a name of its own
And a use in the world no doubt,
Yet a hand's-breadth of its shines alone
'Mid the blank miles round about:
For there I picked up on the heather
And there I put inside my breast
A moulted feather, an eagle-feather—
Well, I forget the rest.

Pupils must, in any case understand that lines eight to fifteen constitute a metaphor, whether or not the teacher chooses to use the technical term. That the sentence is complex, with two subordinate clauses, and several minor compound constructions, is worth observing. Indeed, it is essential to analyze all of this in one way or another. Grammar, whether traditional, descriptive, structural, or transformational has a necessary contribution to the understanding of language. The fact that none of these systems covers all contingencies should not prevent us from employing them to the degree that they are useful.

It remains a fact, however, that many

pupils—and many educated adults—dislike grammatical analysis and find it to be of little use in developing skill in speaking, reading, and writing. We are all familiar with the successful student of grammar who fails to put the rules into practice. There are, of course, many masters of speech and prose who do not know a morpheme from a phoneme, a determiner from a noun. Speech and writing are aspects of an art form, which can be mastered intuitively. There are pupils who will read "Memorabilia" and grasp it intuitively. Others will profit from analysis. Others will grasp meanings and implications after adroit questions by the teacher. As teachers of reading and of all the aspects of the language arts that necessarily must be taught in connection with reading, we shall, however, want to know as much about the science of language as possible. We have arts of our own, aesthetic and emotional, which we shall continue to practice. As for our pupils, we ought, I think, to try out some of the linguistic approaches to see whether they are of use. As the eclectic approach remains the best system yet devised in teaching primary reading, so we may surmise that a variety of approaches, scientific as well as intuitive and experiential, is appropriate to the teaching of reading in the early secondary school.

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B. JUNIOR HIGH LEVEL

1. Linguistic Principles Applied to the Teaching of Reading

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IN ORDER to explain principles of linguistics it is first necessary to explain how a linguist identifies himself. Quite simply, a linguist is a person who analyzes language scientifically. The problem then is not so much in defining *linguist* as in explaining what *language* is. Although language may well be the way we express our thoughts, this time-honored definition does not allow for scientific observation, much less for objective description. A more satisfactory, if less beautiful, definition is the following: "Language is an arbitrary system of articulated sounds made use of by a group of humans as a means of carrying on the affairs of their society."[1] The linguistic principles which require special focus here are *system, sounds* and *society*. Other principles exist, but for our purposes, these three will suffice.

Linguists who have stressed the *system* of language on the phonemic-graphemic level are Charles C. Fries, Robert L. Allen, Robert Hall, Henry Lee Smith, Jr. and others. Their emphasis on understanding the relationship of visual symbols (letters) to speech is a scholarly contribution to reading and spelling. Various implications have been developed from these studies, among them the important thesis that young readers be presented first with regular patterns and that a mixing of spelling patterns be avoided as much as possible while learning is being developed.

Other linguists have been working on the *system* of language in another area—syntax. Carl Lefevre, Robert Allen and Sumner Ives are currently at work on separate patterns of a broader type—patterns on the word group level.

The second linguistic principle, that of *sounds,* is stressed in different ways by both the grapheme-phoneme and syntax-reading schools. The "spelling pattern" approach is characterized by an emphasis on sound to grapheme relationships. Even the whole-sentence method of Lefevre focuses on intonation as a device which signals the larger patterns. His stress on intonation, which is represented by graphic clues such as punctuation and capitalization, gives support to the linguist's belief that language is, first of all, *sound*.

The third linguistic principle, the *social* structure of language, has not received as much attention from linguists who are interested in reading problems. It is now time to stress the principle of *society.* Dialectologists have gathered a wealth of information about American English pronunciation, vocabulary, and grammar and the Atlas data are gradually filtering through to the public.

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[1] W. Nelson Francis, ***The Structure of American English*** (New York: Ronald Press, 1958), p. 13.

One of the first areas of usefulness of Atlas materials in the reading process is in matters of correlating the spoken language to the writing system. Linguists feel that in a child's initial reading experience, he should be guided in the form of language which is as close to his speech as possible. The writing system is usually a standard system. The obvious problem here is in presenting introductory reading materials to a child who speaks a non-standard social or regional dialect.

Let us assume, for example, that the reading teacher uses the phoneme-grapheme system. Assume, furthermore, that the reading teacher wants to teach the spelling patterns of English in a consistent and systematic fashion. She may teach, for example, that the vowel of *fire, wire* and *tire* is the phoneme /aI/ which is manifested by the grapheme (i). This will be wonderfully true for a large part of our country but will cause definite problems in many Midland and Southern dialect areas. There the grapheme (i) is manifested by the phoneme /a:/, as the pronunciation /fa:r/, /wa:r/ and /ta:r/ will clearly indicate.

What this means is that notions of spelling patterns will have to be geared to the dialect areas of our country. To my knowledge, nobody vehemently denies this and yet we have not heard very much about this need. If the effectiveness of the reading program depends on the relevance of the spoken language to the written manifestation of it, then we must be careful to systematize grapheme-phoneme relationships in a regionally and socially useful manner.

This problem is intensified when teacher and student have different regional or social backgrounds. /wa:r/ may be a perfectly acceptable Southern Illinois pronunciation but it may nevertheless rankle the Northern Illinois teacher and, in-migration being what it is in America today, the likelihood of dialects in contact is increasingly great. If our reading teacher follows the spelling pattern approach, she must fully understand the phoneme-grapheme relationship between (i) and Northern /aI/ and Midland and Southern /a:/. Other regional contrasts which have significance for the spelling pattern approach are /ka:/ - /kar/ for *car*, /wount/ - /wənt/ for *won't*, /duz/ - dIuz/ for *dues*, /fag/ - /fɔg/ for *fog*, /mɛrId/ - /mærId/ for *married*, /wIč/ - /hwIč/ for *which* and /ruf/ - /rʊf/ for *roof*.

There are also social contrasts which must be considered if we are to gear a reading program as closely to the child's spoken language as possible. The teacher may certainly come up against these social pronunciations: /rInsIz/ - /renčIz/ for *rinses*, /waš/ - /woš/ - /worš/ for *wash*, /wIO/ - /wIt/ for *with* and /fIs/ - /dIs/ for *this*.

The specific applications of this dialect material is best left to those whose expertise in such matters exceeds my own but it should be obvious that we need separate spelling-to-sound mappings of regional and non-standard dialects to help us in our preparation of reading materials.

Recent interest among dialectologists has also pointed to the systematic social overlaying of grammatical systems. The social dialectologist discovers not just pronunciations and vocabulary, but also various grammatical patterns. Studies by William Stewart in Washington D. C. and Juanita Williamson in Memphis, for example, have opened to view grammatical systems which are used by various subgroups.[2] A certain Washington, D. C. social group, as Stewart observes, does not normally inflect the verb to show the difference between the present and preterit tenses. "I see it," therefore, means both "I see it" and "I saw it." To make the statement negative, however, a contrastive pattern is used. "I don't see it" is present negative and "I ain't see it" is preterit negative. Miss Williamson notes the systematic reversal in the present tense verb inflections of certain high school students in Memphis from the standard *I walk, you walk, he walks, we walk, you walk they walk*, to *I walks, you walks, he walk, we walks, you walks, they walks*. Both of these examples point to an application of systematic linguistic evidence to the reading program. A Memphis student who reads "I walks" where the printed page says "I walk" is apparently substituting his spoken English system, part of his social dialect, for the written English system, which might well be considered a different social dialect. The student's substitution may not really be a phoneme-grapheme misreading but rather a logical substitution of the dialect which he knows for the one which is somewhat foreign to his society.

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[2] William A. Stewart, "Urban Negro Speech: Sociolinguistic Factors Affecting English Teaching," and Juanita Williamson, "Report on A Proposed Study of the Speech of Negro High School Students in Memphis." Both of these articles will appear in a forthcoming publication of the National Council of Teachers of English called *Urban School Dialects and Language Learning*.

Applications to the Junior-High Reading Program

The dialectologist urges the teacher to accept the existence of regional and social dialects. Having admitted that dialects exist, the teacher should recognize their value. Involved in this, of course, is some notion of what "standard English" means and that it varies from place to place. The very contrasts of social or regional dialects which may make for phoneme-grapheme problems in junior-high reading programs can be turned to pedagogical advantage by the alert and knowledgeable teacher. An inductively developed unit on American dialects might easily grow out of the students' own experience and background, much to the advantage of the course as a whole.

The dialectologist joins other linguists in urging the teacher to understand the relationship between grapheme and phoneme. Just how much of this would be incorporated into the actual classroom is up to the teacher, but if speech sounds are to be produced by the teacher and student, the classroom should become lively and interesting, for it is, after all, great fun to make noise. This also provides an opportunity for the teacher to point out the systematic nature of English sounds and describe the relationship of sound to symbol as a coding process, a description which most students will find as adventuresome and mysterious as the maneuvers of any secret agent of television or movies.

The dialectologist also urges the junior high reading teacher to begin with the spoken language as it is. Don't consider the student's phonology, grammar or syntax an unsystematic chaos. There is a system in every dialect, even though it may not be the system which the teacher most highly esteems. But the student must have as few interference problems as possible and this suggests that he learn to read, or improve his reading, in the dialect which is most familiar to him. Any teacher-imposed improvements must come at a later stage. If the pupil systematically produces *renches*, for *rinses* or *she coat* for *her coat*, and if these variations exist systematically within the student's familiar language, it is probably best to delay improvements until the student is able to read satisfactorily within his own dialect system.

To the student, dialectologists offer the hope which *pattern* brings to a junior-high world in which restrictions are frequently unjustified, in which manners are unreachable, and in which one is too young to be adult and too old to be childish. If it is hopeful to scholars to be able to put pieces together into wholes, how much more hopeful it must be to students who, if Brunerian Theory is correct, respond to entire patterns and learn from inductively gathered evidence.

The recent emphases on the relationship of linguistics to reading have brought problems as well as responsibilities to the teacher. Teachers must learn new things, master complex terminology and think along new lines. But the emphases have been on a positive putting together of pieces—spelling patterns, syntax patterns and the socio-linguistic matrixes provided by recent work in American dialects. All these are based on the principles of linguistics—sound, system, and society. All contribute pattern to the study of reading.

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3. The Role of the Library in the Junior High School Reading Program

ANNE W. PITTS

INEVITABLY connected with the improvement of learning achievement is consideration of the improvement of learning's tools. The most basic of these are the language arts, particularly reading.

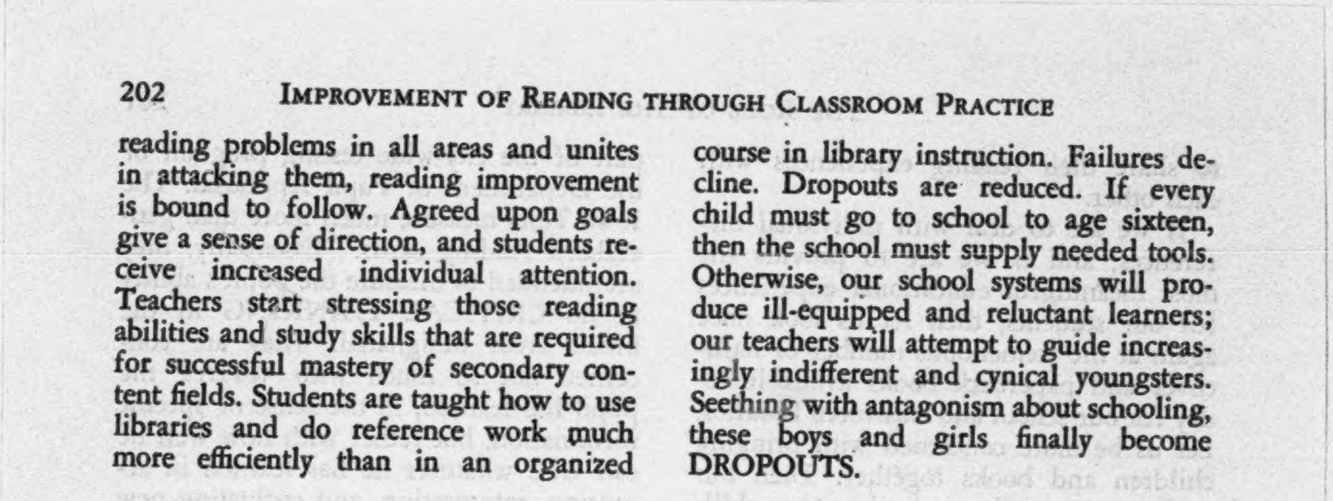
The District of Columbia has developed a Reading Improvement Program which I will present here. The story of how this program evolved is told primarily to stimulate continued action in the use of the library as a valuable tool in improving reading achievement.

Students in the District junior high schools are learning to read more critically and with greater precision as teachers continue to emphasize the reading abilities that are essential in the subject matter areas. The students have shown greater maturity in applying what they read, in reorganizing, in summarizing, in comparing ideas received in reading with other sources of information, and in carrying such ideas into actual solution of problems rather than mere discussions. Additional conclusive evidence was presented when individual schools received the 1961, 1962 and 1963 results from the Iowa Test of Educational Development which had been administered each year during this period to all ninth classes as part of the city-wide testing program of the Department of Pupil Appraisal. The Iowa Tests measure much more than generalized reading skills. "Essentially, they are intended to measure the pupil's ability to do CRITICAL THINKING in the broad areas designated. They are concerned not so much with WHAT the pupil has learned, in the sense of specific information, but rather with how well he can USE whatever he has learned in acquiring, interpreting, and evaluating new ideas, in relating new ideas to old, and in applying broad concepts and generalizations to new situations or to the solution of problems."

The 1960-61 Iowa test results for grades nine and ten in the District schools represent achievement for the first groups to progress through the junior high schools during a three years period in which there was *direct teaching of reading skills* with approximately three thousand students and the *provision of competent guidance and purposeful, persistent practice* for all other students. The data show general achievement for District junior high schools at and above the national norm. Results for 1961-62 and 1962-63 reveal that scores in nearly all areas were practically identical with results obtained in 1960-61.

A comparative study of achievement data for grades nine, ten, and twelve during the period 1955-56 (the first year of school integration) to 1962-63 shows a consistently strong picture for the District secondary schools. There is clear indication that the school-wide reading and study skills program had a definite effect on the achievement of the students. At each grade level, the group which had progressed through the junior high schools during the period appropriate help in reading was provided scored significantly higher than the groups for which no reading instruction had been provided. Improved achievement has been consistent for each school. The only thing systematic and universal for these schools was reading. This common experience, this consistent pattern strongly suggests that there is a positive relationship between the Reading Improvement Program and general academic achievement.

When an entire faculty understands the



reading problems in all areas and unites in attacking them, reading improvement is bound to follow. Agreed upon goals give a sense of direction, and students receive increased individual attention. Teachers start stressing those reading abilities and study skills that are required for successful mastery of secondary content fields. Students are taught how to use libraries and do reference work much more efficiently than in an organized course in library instruction. Failures decline. Dropouts are reduced. If every child must go to school to age sixteen, then the school must supply needed tools. Otherwise, our school systems will produce ill-equipped and reluctant learners; our teachers will attempt to guide increasingly indifferent and cynical youngsters. Seething with antagonism about schooling, these boys and girls finally become DROPOUTS.

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2. The Role of the Library in the Junior High School Reading Program

M. JERRY WEISS

FOR MANY years persons interested in the teaching of reading have been greatly concerned with the development of reading skills, grouping procedures, the development of skill-building materials and kits, organization and administration of special kinds of reading services, etc. I suppose these are all important factors, but at times I wonder if we aren't getting lost in a world of jargon, mechanics, and gadgetry. Are we moving farther and farther away from our real purpose—the development of lifetime readers? Whatever happened to the idea of bringing books and children together? Isn't that important today?

Somehow I feel it is. I am concerned greatly with the interaction between books and children. I feel that the library is the real core of the reading program because here is where books and children get together for the real learning to take place. This idea is not original, but it certainly is an outgrowth of my own experiences as a student, a secondary school teacher, and now as a person concerned with the training of teachers for all levels.

These experiences have made me so bold as to raise a few points for your thinking and reaction:

1. I am convinced that reading is not a separate subject. Any subject we teach in the junior high school requires the mastery and application of certain reading skills. Therefore, all teachers need a course in the teaching of reading and need to know how to apply sound principles of reading instruction within each of the content areas.

2. Reading is an extremely personal experience. Each individual brings something to and gets something out of any reading activity. It is because we enjoy this personal experience that we continue to read.

3. Reading is a selective experience. Each of us has his needs and his moods. One day we need information about political candidates; that same evening we find pleasure in the writings of James Thurber or Muriel Spark or Ian Fleming. We need to provide experiences through which students can choose books for their many needs and moods.

4. Effective reading requires critical thinking. In a recently published book concerned with criticizing the types of texts being used in the secondary school curriculum, I found the authors pretty much convinced that *the text* is more often the curriculum guide than not. This is a pretty sharp attack on teachers. Is there really *a text* for all students? Don't we need a variety of materials to point out the many points of view, the many interpretations of critical ideas and issues as revealed in the many printed sources today? Can critical thinking come from a single source?

5. In any junior high school classroom there is a wide range of interests and abilities. Doesn't a teacher have the responsibility to provide for these individual differences?

These are just a few of the many aspects of a reading program that junior high school teachers might think about. If they are important, then the library might very well become the hub of the program. For in the library we should have a wide range of materials covering all fields of academic and personal interest. Here students can read widely and pursue independently their special interests and assignments. Teachers and librarians can work effectively together in helping each child, regardless of his reading level, to find reading material which he is interested in and can succeed with.

This means that teachers will need to move from a single text guide to developing courses of study based on important topics to be learned. Then the library becomes the source of investigation for each issue to be covered. Instead of all students reading the same book, each student is free to select materials which will contribute to his understanding of that topic.

Is there any real justification for all students to read the same novel at the same time? Can't we choose a theme—such as "Man's Search for Justice"—and have students read in different books to find out how authors of all times in all countries of the world have treated this theme? Later students should be permitted

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to share their reading experiences with each other.

If we are to deal with individual differences, and if we are to provide the most meaningful educational experiences for our students, then let us look once again at the tremendous number of hardcover and paperback books available today for our school and classroom libraries. Let us be more concerned with bringing children and books together. Then our students can really apply the many skills of reading. Only if we cater to the personal interests and values of reading for each individual, will we ever hope to develop that student into a lifetime reader. The library offers us the materials and services that should be basic in any junior high school curriculum.

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3. A Rationale for the Teaching of Reading to Disadvantaged Children

JUDITH BROWN

THE BROAD concept of reading as a thinking process must be an integral part of any plan to improve the skills of disadvantaged students in the areas of understanding and manipulating written language. The danger of accepting a too highly structured, categorized, and constricted view of the elements involved in the practice of reading is the greatest single deterrent to a realistic realization of a pupil-centered goal. The mechanics of word perception and word attack skills—comparatively easily presented in and of themselves—cannot be isolated from conceptual and psychic involvement and the devious relationships present in any teaching-learning situation.

Further, since reading is a cognitive process, each pupil's mental style or way of thinking must be explored and expanded rather than placidly being ignored or accepted and adapted to. We need to lean more heavily upon the strengths in a personality which have allowed it to survive in a limited environment rather than to decry the weaknesses it may have bred. In short, we need to make a massive instructional attack upon the reading possibilities of disadvantaged children based on their positive qualities of living and learning.

What are some of these positive factors with which we have to work? First, deprived children are not non-verbal per se.[1] Typically, they do not verbalize well in response to words alone but express themselves more readily when reacting to things they can see and do.

Second, the scores achieved by deprived children can be improved sharply by meaningfully directed practice offering special rewards.[2] With high motivation—or incentives, if you will—efficient test-taking techniques and good rapport with the examiner, the resulting performance can be improved.

Third, the following characteristics have been fairly generally determined to be largely typical of the deprived child's style of learning:

a. Physical and visual rather than aural
b. Problem-centered rather than abstract-centered
c. Inductive rather than deductive
d. Spatial rather than temporal[3]

Teaching tools and materials geared to these primary characteristics are available and ready for creative teacher usage.

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[1] Martin Deutsch. *Minority Groups and Class Status as Related to Social and Personality Factors in Scholastic Achievement.* New York: Monograph published by Society for Applied Anthropology, 1960.

[2] Ernest A. Haggard. "Social Status and Intelligence." *Genetic Psychology* Monographs, Vol. 49, 1954.

[3] Frank Riessman. *The Culturally Deprived Child.* New York: Harpers, 1962.

Fourth, direct teaching can change attitude and self-concepts which will help students examine their own modes of thinking about themselves and others and offer them alternative approaches which will deploy more of their psychic energies from anxiety to learning.[4] Teachers and children often display self-defeating kinds of thinking which stand in the way of learning. What the teacher or child says to himself about a situation and not the situation itself causes a feeling of worthlessness which deeply influences aspiration and motivational levels, especially in the sensitive area of language.

The rationale for teaching reading to disadvantaged students of any grade level here presented is based essentially upon the real acceptance and actual use of positive, learning factors present in the individual's psychic organization. It is predicated upon the need for a pluralistic approach in education for all children of the republic and presumes that love, indeed, is not enough without respect and consistency. Above all it rests on the premise that the school, as an extended family and community situation, is peopled by teachers interested in, capable of, and willing to work with all of our children.

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[4] A. Ellis and R. Harper. *A Guide to Rational Living in an Irrational World.* Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice Hall, 1961.

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2. Factors of Format Relative to Comprehension or Mediocrity on East Houston Street

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For two years I have been stumbling through jungles of half truths, hunches, delusions, and misassumptions of experts who proliferate at a rate proportionate to OEO grants. These are the years of poverty—that's where the money is, and every discipline from law to reading is jumping on Johnson's troop trains to Harlem, Bedford Stuyvesant, Lower East Side, Appalachia, the South Side or whatever you call the other side of the tracks in your town.

Occasionally, troops venture into the trenches. When they do, they often stop at Mobilization for Youth, just off Houston Street on New York's Lower East Side to test their theories against our experiences in action programs, research projects, clinics and materials development. In MFY's' area, over 21,000 so-called "disadvantaged youth" flounder through the schools and streets of what to them appears to be an alien culture.

Over 60 per cent of these school children are socially disadvantaged Puerto Ricans. Approximately 15 to 20 per cent are Negro. Over 85 per cent of Puerto Rican eighth graders in our area are reading below grade level as are 72 per cent of the Negroes and 48 per cent of the whites. These figures must be interpreted in the light of a high and early dropout rate which weeds out some of the worst achievers in grade eight.

Our programs in research and action go beyond the school to dropouts, preschoolers, and adults, involving every social science technique in the books—reading being just one of our major areas of operation.

Out of dozens of projects dealing with the "animal in its natural habitat," we have come to two conclusions about format in materials development for urban populations:

First Conclusion

Mediocre material with mediocre methods taught by mediocre teachers are failing Negro and Puerto Rican youth. Middle class youngsters will learn to read under these conditions, but disadvantaged children will not. *Why?* Because children in "advantaged" areas need to depend less on the school for motivation and skills to read than do children in "disadvantaged" areas. The child from Scarsdale is bombarded with stimuli that teach him to read through "incidental teaching" outside the school in contrast to "direct teaching" inside the school. Abraham Tannenbaum, MFY's Director of Education, says, "The Puerto Rican and Negro child on the Lower East Side must depend more upon the school to learn to read than does the child of middle class advantaged homes."

The quality of teaching reading is mediocre in the light of current knowledge of learning techniques. But in addition, the quality of materials, from the basal reader to the high school anthology, has been mediocre. We and the publishers have been getting away with shoddy materials, poorly developed and poorly executed. We have been hiding behind the high motivation and incidental learning of that kid from Scarsdale. Now we can no longer hide. King and company have called our bluffs; they have government and foundation money to cover our favorite scapegoat—lack of funds. Meanwhile, publishers have awakened to the smell of large profits. They are pushing panic buttons in every corner of their talent stables and coming up with colored pictures still bathed in mediocrity.

Or else they try to sneak across large print and short selections with pages of formidable, crippling drills. In one secondary school reader for disadvantaged populations, we had to extract the reading selections hidden in pages of drills. We pasted them up, making a new reader, and discovered we had paid money for a sizeable reading workbook that actually included five pages of text.

Second Conclusion

In general, the variables that make quality material for the Scarsdale child are the same for the disadvantaged child. What is good reading material?

Good writers write what is meaningful to the reader. If I am Negro, participating in a revolution for human rights led by Negroes, reading material on this subject will reach me. If I am Puerto Rican, I like to think there is something worthwhile in my culture. I want Lower East Side stories by a Spanish Harry Golden.

Coloring the pictures and widening the nostrils will not make a difference. Frosting is okay to lick, but the cake needs something more if it is to be consumed. Puerto Rican and Negro children want stories about real people, some of whom are "black just like me."

Both the kid from Scarsdale and the one from Houston Street need to feel a sense of completeness or closure. They need a reading selection they can finish. The history of the world in 932 pages does not leave the reader much hope of closure before June. The kid from Houston Street lives a precarious existence. He may not be around until June. Kids on the lower East Side dare not hope for futures. They have enough trouble surviving today. So they want to finish today, or tomorrow at the latest. Delayed gratification may "make it" in Scarsdale, but for Houston Street, it is a middle class value foreign to the temper of the neighborhood. I suspect our Scarsdale youngster would appreciate smaller units for the same reason, but he would not admit it.

Short sentences; simple, concise structure; sharp verbs; tight paragraphing; correctly placed modifiers and pronouns; large print; small units—aren't these qualities of good writing for youngsters and oldsters on both sides of the track?

These are the two major conclusions that have guided us in materials development at MFY:

1. Mediocre materials will not work with disadvantaged kids.
2. Quality is quality, black or white.

What are some other factors of format that make for quality materials that we have found effective?

Page format and pictures cannot compensate for poor content. One well known social studies series for "slow learners" in urban schools has short units, large print, colorful pictures and relatively low vocabulary (not always a necessity). It still, however, teaches José the six steps to become a knight and has the audacity to require José to regurgitate this information on a checkout test. There is a dearth of good history content in secondary school social studies texts. Format will not hide mediocrity from José.

One publisher has offered a better history book content-wise. Unfortunately, it weighs twice as much as what our youngsters are willing to carry to and from school. This is the reverse problem—content, but no format!

We have found good programed material successful in small dosages to socially disadvantaged junior high school children. The constructed or multiple choice response in frames that meet the criteria of good programing are successful in a Ford Foundation curriculum experiment I am conducting in a New Jersey city.

Again, immediate feedback for closure; small learning units; short, concise and direct statements are effective. Here we find, however, another factor of format that is successful—self directed reading and learning. Materials that are self teaching and self correcting are extremely effective with disadvantaged youngsters. It increases the intensity of learning for the individual. This is good for Scarsdale, too.

Let reading be reading. Too many different exercises per reading selection discourage the reader. Many reading work-

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books try to teach everything in one selection.

Prepare the reader with "reading tips." One or two short statements to direct the reader help his comprehension whether he be Puerto Rican or Scarsdalian.

I think I've made my point. There's no hocus pocus to good format for reading material for kids on the Lower East Side.

What principles of format that apply to materials development for kids on New York's Lower East Side wouldn't apply in Scarsdale ?

The answer? Nothing! Except we can't get away with mediocrity on Houston Street.

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2. Compensatory Reading Instruction for Disadvantaged Adolescents

GERTRUDE L. DOWNING

NO ONE who has not worked with culturally disadvantaged children can comprehend the extent of their edutional deficit. Since September 1961, three beginning teachers, with this writer as coordinator, have been teaching ninety youngsters in a junior high school in a lower socio-economic area of New York City. As members of the Queens College BRIDGE Project, we have studied the learning needs of these children and the professional needs of the teachers who instruct them.

The Challenge

The seventh graders, with whom we began our work, had certain qualities in common. Their oral language development was largely restricted to monosyllables and incomplete sentences. Dialect impeded their fluency in speech and in reading. Insufficient experience outside their own segregated community handicapped their ability to conceptualize. The dehumanizing influences of poverty, with its correlates of broken homes, family mobility, and individual insecurity, had produced negative attitudes toward school in general and toward reading in particular. Even those children in the group who were relatively more fortunate had been traumatized by the cultural milieu in which they existed.

Although our pupils had many characteristics in common, they presented a wide range of abilities and achievement levels. A frequency distribution of grade equivalent scores on the *Metropolitan Reading Test* delineated an instructional challenge:

Grade Equivalent Score	Number
Below 3	6
3	24
4	18
5	10
6	11
7	5
8	3
9	5
10	2

Most standardized reading tests with their time limits, with their esoteric vocabulary and content, with their unfamiliar directions, are manifestly inappropriate for the experientially deprived adolescent. Therefore, we relied upon continuous informal appraisal of pupil performance in the classroom for determination of instructional need.

Some Aspects of Compensatory Instruction

Our first goal was to provide our pupils with successful reading experiences. To do this, we secured quantities of high interest, low difficulty materials both for content area instruction and for extensive reading. Most successful have been the narrative and biographical works, for the interests of these youngsters are strongly rooted in the immediate needs of daily living. Our second aim was the improvement of comprehension, and we have tried constantly to utilize every sensory pathway to concept development and to vocabulary building. We have taken many trips about the city with our pupils, family style. We have used pictures, films, filmstrips, recordings. Whenever possible, we have provided actual objects or substances for the youngsters to see and to handle. And we have labored to develop questioning to a fine art, never telling pupils what it is possible to elicit from them; never accepting literal understandings when it is possible to push on to interpretive ones. Our continuing purpose has been that of increasing the language fluency of our children.

The Unique Elements of BRIDGE

Of course, none of these described activities is, in itself, particularly remarkable. What then, has made the BRIDGE program unique?

A most valuable element in our design has been the continuity of relationship between our three teachers and this group of children for the three year junior high school experience. This has provided an unparalleled opportunity for constant evaluation of pupil needs and for dynamic instruction adapted to those needs. A second asset, the team interrelationship between teachers and coordinator, has made possible an integrated program of reading

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skills instruction in the four major subject areas of English, social studies, science, and mathematics.

Finally, the pattern of long-term, cooperative supervision has provided opportunity for effective in-service training in the teaching of reading. This longitudinal experience has made it possible for the coordinator to demonstrate instructional techniques; to share classroom responsibilities through team teaching; to provide assistance in diagnosis and evaluation; and to aid in securing or in preparing appropriate instructional materials.

The Outcomes

Our three years of work on BRIDGE ended in June. Our seventh graders have become ninth graders and the beginning teachers are now veterans. We can say with conviction that almost all of our pupils who are not impeded by reason of severe emotional disturbance or of strictly limited potential have shown marked improvement in classroom reading activities. We are hopeful, too, that our final reading test results will give quantitative evidence of our pupils' growth. Our faith in the BRIDGE approach has already been vindicated, however, for the mean increase in Verbal IQ, as measured by the Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children, is significantly greater for our classes than for the control classes.

We have worked hard and we have learned much. May the knowledge we have gained contribute to providing more effective learning experiences for our disadvantaged children.

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B. JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

1. Teaching Reading to the Disadvantaged—Junior High Mobilization for Youth Reading Program

MARILYN GIBBONS

MOBILIZATION FOR YOUTH is a broad-scale, comprehensive, experimental-demonstration program designed to attack the problem of juvenile delinquency. Its major premise is that no effort to prevent juvenile delinquency can succeed unless it provides young people with *genuine* opportunities to behave differently—through creative educational and exciting work programs.

Whereas in middle-class communities, reading retardation averages from 10-20 per cent of the school population, in the MFY area, as much as 80 per cent of the children are reading retardates. The consequences, of course, are limited educational, vocational, and economic opportunities which tend to perpetuate a vicious circle.

While service is an intrinsic part of the Junior High School Reading Clinic program, the major commitment is to translate its work and instruction into improved classroom practices and teaching.

The work of the JHS Reading Clinic is particularly critical because of the problems of the junior high school age group in this depressed area. The end of school years is in sight. The realities of whether they will be able to complete school successfully and obtain employment are pressing in on these children, and many are feeling pretty hopeless about the future.

The general orientation of the MYF Junior High School Reading Clinic is toward the pupil. The major aims and tasks are to re-motivate the children toward learning, to utilize materials of interest and pertinence to him, and to teach the skills he needs. During all of this, many aspects are examined—materials, skills, methods, techniques, and their relationships.

The JHS Reading Clinic opened last summer with a seven-week program for retarded readers from the local schools. Two hundred and forty children came voluntarily twice weekly for work in groups of four. One hundred and ninety-five of these pupils completed the entire program. A selected group of 40 pupils was re-tested with standardized reading tests. Reading gains ranged from —1.1 to +3.3. The median gain was +.9.

The first thing learned from this program was that the children were willing and able to avail themselves of clinic services.

This fall, with three remedial reading clinicians, a psychologist, and a psychiatric social worker on the staff, the clinic program was limited to 90 children in order to allow time for experimentation on a pilot study basis.

One program, which appears very promising, is the work of Mrs. Macomber. She devised a series of sequential lesson plans predicated upon the assumption that certain problem-solving techniques are common to all skill areas. Comprehension is *not* only a skill of reading. By working with problem-solving techniques, as illustrated by Jerome Bruner, first in isolation, then by teaching transfer, skills could be applied in whatever areas needed. Problem-solving techniques are studied first in game situations, such as Cuisiniere rods, dominoes, and chess.

In essence what was accomplished was to help these children define and clarify what the problem was, determine an appropriate mode of attack, arrive at the solution, and understand why the solution and the attack were correct.

Mrs. Macomber also designed and utilized a series of lessons devoted to word attack skills which were taught as programed lessons.

Initial results were promising. If after strict experimental evaluation this approach is shown to be a good one, there does not seem to be any reason why the same type of program cannot be used to teach other skills at varying levels of difficulty.

The second pilot study program conducted in the clinic is called STAR, "Supplementary Teaching Assistance in Reading." It was felt that parents could play a unique and important role in influencing a child's motivation toward learning. With guidance and professional training by clinic personnel, parents could become involved in their children's reading experiences. This could have broad implications for developing in the child positive attitudes toward learning and for reinforcing reading skills. To this end, parents were invited to attend a series of lessons, demonstrations, and discussion periods focused on the reading instruction their children were receiving. On the average, 25 per cent of the clinic families attended these meetings.

The only evaluation that can be made now is impressionistic since the statistical data are not complete. Many of the parents who attended expressed great interest in learning more about their children's problems and needs and at the final meeting spoke freely of the fact that they felt much more open-minded and understanding of their children and their difficulties. Many said this had resulted in a better home atmosphere. Several mentioned also that their children, who formerly never said a word about the clinic, became quite talkative and, sometimes, even willing to read with them once they had learned that the parent had met with his clinic teacher.

When these two programs have been evaluated it is expected that guidelines for future programs and projects can be drawn. This first year has been new and exciting and productive of many insights. The big job, that of putting these insights to work to evolve truly effective programs suitable for classroom use, remains to be done. The promise seems to exist.

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C. JUNIOR HIGH LEVEL

1. The Developmental Program Meets the Challenge of Potential School Dropouts

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A CHIEF stumbling block of potential dropouts in school and industry is lack of ability to read. It is in junior high school that the dropout problem becomes clearly defined and most acute. One of the most promising things educators are doing is their effort to provide a program which meets the needs of culturally deprived children before school programs geared to unfamiliar mores and standards compound their difficulties. One way to meet the challenge is to provide at the junior high level a developmental reading program designed to help these children become more efficient readers.

The Characteristics of a Disadvantaged Child—A Potential Dropout

It is first necessary to realize that children who are educationally disadvantaged do not need to be taught to read by methods that differ radically from those used in teaching other children. In teaching all children to read—the privileged or the disadvantaged — certain basic principles must govern. For instance, we start with the child's experiences, whatever his environment, no matter how clever or dull he may be. The fact that the disadvantaged child learns best through continual contact with concrete things with which he is familiar and in the end acquires fewer reading skills and generalized ideas than other children is a mark of relative and not absolute difference. We must always maintain close contact with the real experiences of each child and develop a reading program suited to his needs.

Disadvantaged children usually can be divided into two classes—those who try and those who do not try.

Some children may try in the wrong way or with the wrong materials. They may lack the experience to develop generalized ideas; they may lack the ability to form concepts from a variety of experiences; they may be suffering from some emotional disturbance.

Some children do not learn to read because no one has taken the pains to study their backgrounds and problems, and no one has ever talked to them in language they really understand. Some may, through lack of medical attention, be suffering from physical or emotional disability growing out of unfavorable home conditions. Some may be nervous and temperamental. Such children need the sympathetic treatment that comes with understanding why they are as they are.

The same factors which prevent some students from succeeding may prevent others from trying. A child may lack ability. There may be unsatisfactory home conditions: an illiterate father and mother; lack of nourishing food; insufficient rest. In his home, the child may be over-indulged or over-disciplined. He may not really have a home.

Detailed continuous study of each child is necessary. The relation between cause and effect in the diagnosis of reading disabilities is not always simple. We must endeavor carefully to map the relationship.

The right developmental reading program in junior high can salvage many potential school dropouts. We can start by detecting the limitations and potentialities of each child. Realistically we must accept true limitations, but we must not allow these to blind us to potentialities. We must determine what the school *can do* and *should do* and what must be accepted as *beyond its power to do*. Standardized tests give us a fairly reliable estimate of both the child's potential and his achievement level.

We need to discover the nature and extent of the intelligence of each child in the developmental program, for only in this way is it possible to form an opinion as to whether his weaknesses are remediable.

Regardless of social and economic background, regardless of circumstances that make a child what he is, the one limiting factor of which we are certain is his intelligence. If he has not the intelligence to master the necessary skills, even when conditions are favorable he drops back or out. If he drops back, we must develop for him a reading program which on the one hand will not overtax his meagre scholastic abilities and experiences, and on the other will provide opportunities for the development of special gifts he may possess.

Usually children who have difficulty with reading early in junior high have not been successful with most academic subjects and therefore have a dislike for them. They fear the criticism of teachers, parents, classmates, and friends. Most of them, reluctant and fearful, must look to the school, to the English teacher, the science teacher, the librarian, the principal, the guidance counselor for help in overcoming reading problems. Some are not sure they want help or that we are really interested. One of our greatest responsibilities in teaching these disadvantaged and discouraged children to read is to plan ways and means to stimulate interest and build self-confidence wherever it lags or has never existed.

The Importance of a Developmental Reading Program

The process of learning to read is not over for any child at the junior high level. Those with low reading age and low mental age need special encouragement to continue their striving to achieve as fully as they can. Those with high intelligence and high reading age need opportunities in a good library, and encouragement and guidance to keep them on the road toward refined and extended reading skills. Those whose mental age exceeds their reading age, the retarded readers, are in need of special kinds of help.

When educationally and culturally disadvantaged children, on reaching secondary school, become aware that they have failed to achieve reasonable proficiency in reading, they are naturally quite disturbed. To help them, we will be wise to make a clean break with any system that lumps them as the "slow" group and feeds them merely a further diet of failure. We must start afresh. We must first overcome emotional blocks by doing all we can to minimize the risk of failure. Wherever these children are, they are somewhere on the way to reading power. We must locate that point and start there with a program in which they will succeed at each step no matter how halting it may be. The challenge in this task is not small.

Seven "musts" for disadvantaged children in a junior high developmental reading program are:

1. Each class must be a group of ten or fewer.
2. Beginning when the warning signs appear, before the children become problems, there must be an extended period (an hour to an hour and a half daily) for an integrated reading, language, and spelling program which is kept easy and interesting.
3. There must be a consistent plan of activity so that the children have security.
4. There must be opportunity to develop independence, each pupil knowing that help is nearby if needed, but encouraged to use by himself the skills that he is learning.
5. The habit of reading at home must be developed by lending from the school books which are within the child's reading ability and, therefore, a source of pleasure and satisfaction.
6. At no time should these children be permitted to drop into the general stream until they have become fully se-

cure. They must continue to have practice and guidance in word skills, vocabulary development, basic comprehension skills, methods of reading in content subjects. They must have, continuously, reading lessons in books in social studies, mathematics, and science to make sure they have the concepts, the vocabulary, and the skills of reading that these books demand.

7. In every school there must be some one or two or twenty teachers who have special training in reading and a special feeling for such children. These are the persons who can and will meet the challenge of potential dropouts through a developmental reading program in junior high that will merit the name "Operation Success."

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C. JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL LEVEL

1. Organizing and Managing Remedial Reading in Classrooms

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WHEN REMEDIAL READING in the classroom is discussed, even the definition of remedial reading must be tailored to fit the situation. The junior high reader to be scheduled for classroom remedial work is the student who is retarded from his potential performing level by two or more years but who does not fall below the beginning third-grade reading level. When remedial reading is conducted in the classroom, it should not include the extremely disabled reader, the mentally-retarded student, the emotionally disturbed child, and those other youngsters whose problems would prevent them from learning in a classroom setting. Efforts to provide remedial reading in the classrooms do not eliminate the need for the highly trained specialist. The classroom approach is, basically, an attack on those reading problems that tend to be neglected by the classroom teacher and which do not receive the attention of the specialist because they are not severe enough.

The type of remedial reader which would find the classroom approach beneficial was described by Gray *(2)* as a "Needlessly Retarded Reader." This student reads much below the level expected in light of his mental ability and seems to be free of any personal handicaps or deficiencies that might contribute to reading disabilities. His reading is characterized as slow and careless. He has limited and inaccurate comprehension and recall, has inadequate word skills, and lacks flexibility in rate and methods of reading different materials. He lacks interest in reading, and is generally poorly motivated. His history often reveals a considerable amount of buffeting by his environment, but at this time his adjustment is usually such that learning may be restored by a program of remedial reading in the classroom.

Organizing Remedial Reading in the Classroom

The organization of remedial reading in the classroom should be based on the reading diagnosis of the students. Organizational patterns in a classroom have but one purpose—to make the teaching-learning relationship effective. In remedial reading this teaching learning relationship is effective to the degree that the diagnosis is accurate. This diagnostic phase of remedial reading should be given as much attention by the teacher as the instructional phase is given. In report after report of remedial programs, diagnosis is frequently not considered. When tests are used, they are generally for program evaluation rather than diagnosis.

Keeping in mind that we are discussing classroom remedial reading rather than clinically oriented work, the diagnosis usually will be of the status type. The emphasis should be on determining the present condition of the reader and his reading skill and not on discovering the causal factors. It should be noted, however, that if the teaching-learning relationship does not become effective with a status diagnosis, then the classroom teacher has a responsibility to refer the student for a more detailed and, perhaps, a causal diagnosis.

The essential factors in a status diag-

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nosis for the classroom-remedial situation include both the reader and his skill in reading. Information concerning the reader's status for learning should include the extent that his mental ability will contribute or limit his growth in reading; the degree that his current physical condition influences learning; the depth of his motivation for learning to read, including the social-cultural factors; and the extent that his personal adjustment interferes with or contributes to his classroom learning.

A status study should be in considerable depth in regard to the reading condition of the student. Information concerning the reading development of the student should include the results of standardized reading-achievement tests; his independent and instructional reading levels; the degree of his mastery of a variety of word-recognition techniques; the extent of his development of various comprehension abilities; and the nature of his reading habits and preferences. Some of these factors require the use of standard-testing instruments, while many of these factors are best studied informally within the dynamics of the classroom. Further information will be found in the health, testing, and scholastic records of the student.

The various diagnostic measures used in a status study of a student's reading condition would include an intelligence test, silent reading with vocabulary and comprehension subtests, individual and group informal reading inventories, checklist tests of word-recognition skills, and interest inventories. The diagnostic procedures would include total group, small group, and individual contacts. A status diagnosis will make possible the organization of the classroom into teaching-learning patterns which will involve large and small groups as well as individual students.

Managing Remedial Reading in the Classroom

If organizing a remedial-reading classroom implies diagnosis, then the managing of the classroom must be related to the treatment of the reading problem or the instructional tasks in remedial reading. The problems in this diversified organizational pattern are far more complex than is called for in mass single-purpose instruction. The requirements of the teaching-learning situation in the remedial-reading classroom demand a highly differentiated program. The organization must give the teacher the opportunity to do response teaching. As diagnosis is continuous, the teacher's insight into the needs of the students is constantly being modified. This function requires different responses on the teacher's part to meet changing needs. Flexibility is a major requirement in management of remedial reading in the classroom.

We have never been better equipped to handle diversified classroom instruction in reading than we are today. The rapid development of materials that are new in format and design, if not in content, now make it possible to provide instruction in a classroom setting that earlier was achieved only in tutoring or small-group instruction. Materials that have special merit in classroom remedial situations are multilevel, self-administrating, and auto-instructional. The use of materials of this nature gives the teacher the freedom and flexibility necessary to provide directed experience to specific groups and individuals. However, all materials and methods must be selected to assist in a specific teaching-learning situation as time is too important a commodity to the student to waste in randomly selected practice.

This diversified attack on the problem must make it possible for each student to develop according to his needs. Motivation should be given first importance, for without it the other aspects are purposeless. Basically, reading is valuable for what it will do for the reader, and this concept must underlie our efforts in motivation. Interests are important; and if the reader can discover that reading makes a contribution to him personally, then much of his reading could be self-directed. In addition, motivation may result from the student's awareness that growth is taking place. The practice of having students maintain records of daily progress has merit.

Closely allied with motivation is success. Well-meaning programs that cause

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continued failure are failures. Success in reading improvement for these students has its origin in specific adjustments in reading instruction. This program should include the selection of materials for teaching reading skills at the instructional reading level and the selection of materials for home assignments and personal reading at the reader's independent level. It should include skill-development instruction that is specific in terms of needs and systematic in its development. The search for success will cause the instructional program to be flexible and to be characterized by innovation. Stereotyped repetitive approaches should be discarded and alternatives sought.

Organizing and Managing the Total Curriculum

There is one aspect of managing the remedial reading program in the classroom which must be considered although it falls outside of the reading class. The careful diagnosis and the specific adjusted instruction described has been limited to reading. However it must be recognized that this diagnosis has implications for adjustment in all curriculum fields.

Ideally, those staff members in the junior high school who have responsibility for these remedial students should operate as a team to make all of the teaching-learning situations effective. The diagnostic data collected by the reading teacher should be available to the entire team who would supplement it with information from the other subject areas. Armed with these data the staff can then make the necessary decisions about the type of instruction and instructional aids to use. The need for diversification that is evident in reading instruction is relevant for all areas of learning. Isolated efforts in the reading classroom to achieve improvement for these students is doomed to limited success unless efforts go beyond reading instruction. Only by a cooperative effort on the part of the total staff can significant improvement be secured.

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C. JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

1. Organizing and Administering Public School Reading Clinics

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IN THE New York City Public Schools, the first reading clinic known as Special Reading Services was opened in 1955. This program was set up as a special resource for children in the elementary schools who suffered from severe reading difficulty and had not benefited from the instructional facilities regularly available. From these early beginnings the Special Reading Services has grown so that at this writing it has eleven reading clinics located in eleven assistant superintendents' districts. Altogether during the school year 1963-64 about 3000 children were given instructional and clinical service either partially or totally.

The major objectives of the program are as follows:

For the pupil. To improve his attitude toward reading, to raise his level of achievement in reading, and to bring about a more favorable personal-social adjustment.

For the classroom teacher. To help the teacher to recognize the nature of the problems of the individual pupil with reading disability and to explore ways in which she can contribute in this effort to help the pupil.

For the parent. To help parents to understand the underlying dynamics of the learning problems of these boys and girls and to obtain their active cooperation in the effort to help their children.

For the school, the community. To communicate through reports, conferences, and seminars pertinent insights or techniques obtained through these reading clinics.

Underlying Philosophy

It is significant to indicate the viewpoint concerning reading difficulty which is accepted by the director and supervisors

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of the program which obtains at all levels. Severe reading disability cannot be looked upon as a school failure in the sense that the child has been subjected to poor teaching. As a matter of fact, staff members report no cases of children whose reading difficulty can be traced directly to an inadequate method of instruction alone. It is a much deeper problem. In these clinics there has been much probing for causes. There has been considerable success in the analysis of the individual child's problems. There has been no single pattern of causative factors underlying reading failure. Nor has there been evidence in the enormous literature on this subject to indicate a unitary cause. Continued difficulty in learning to read on the part of a pupil of normal intelligence is considered to be a symptom of psychological disorder which is the outcome of many adverse factors within the child and his environment.

Staff

Each clinic, with the exception of the first clinic which has a much larger staff, is provided with a budgetary allotment of positions as follows:

Three teachers of reading
One school psychologist
One school social worker
Services of a psychiatrist one-half day per week
One stenographer

Selection of Pupils

The following are the criteria for selection of children:

1. *Reading retardation of about two years.* This evaluation of reading retardation is approximate rather than strict in a numerical sense. Grade scores resulting from standardized silent reading tests involve a certain amount of error, as do all tests depending upon a multiple choice response. Other factors to be considered are the nature of the pupil's difficulties in both oral and silent reading, as observed by the reading counselor and in the judgment of the class teacher. Though in the main the child's reading achievement is compared with expected competence for his grade placement, his chronological age, school history, and estimated mental maturity must also be taken into account in assessing his need for clinical help.

2. *The pupil's need for help in personal-social adjustment.* Pupils are referred by the principal. Generally, these are pupils who have shown behavior disorders or evidences of personality difficulties which are related to their reading failures. Pupils who are retarded in reading simply because of long illness or other situations resulting in loss or delay in schooling, usually are able to make up for such gaps in instruction by utilizing the resources available in the classroom. The clinical and instructional staff of the reading clinics are needed for helping pupils for whom poor reading is one symptom of underlying difficulty.

3. *Parental willingness to cooperate actively with the social worker.* This includes parental consent for medical and ophthalmological examination and also for psychiatric evaluation, if indicated.

4. *Evidence that the child has at least "average" mental ability.* The reading clinic program is designed to meet the needs of the pupil whose reading achievement is markedly below that which is characteristic of pupils of his mental maturity. It would be desirable to have an individual psychological examination, including an intelligence test, of every pupil referred to the reading clinic. However, because of staff shortages of psychologists, as well as the undesirability of extending the time taken for the selection process, other means must be found for estimating the pupil's potential ability. The purpose is to exclude only the truly mentally retarded and "borderline" pupil whose reading difficulty represents not a special problem but merely one aspect of a slower development process.

The Clinical Program

The first contacts of the social worker with the parent or guardian include orienting the parent to the program and to the services it makes available to her, giving recognition of positive elements in the parent-child relationship, offering support of the parent in his or her role, and sometimes offering suggestions regarding the handling of the boy or girl which can be put to use immediately. The parent is asked to sign a form indicating her consent to have the boy or girl in the program, and agreeing to cooperate with the social worker in keeping future appointments. The parent's agreement to have a psychiatric study of the youngster, if needed, is also included in this form.

The psychologist interviews the pupil in order to explore his interests, attitudes and approach to a new situation. In this initial contact, a series of tests is given to obtain a psychological picture of the pupil.

The Instructional Program

A major goal underlying the reading counselor's work is to bring about a reorientation of each child so that he wants to read and feels that he can read. This is an ambitious goal—in effect looking toward a transformation of the pupil from one who holds extremely negative attitudes towards school and toward himself to one who becomes interested in learning and looks upon himself as capable. The experienced reading counselors can accept this goal because they have seen evidences of very favorable changes taking place in these youngsters in both reading achievement and in personal-social growth. For the newly assigned reading counselor the orientation program is designed to help them accept this goal and to guide them in the methodology which is recommended.

The Auxiliary Services

The program attempts to take into account the broader life situation of the pupils and their parents, recognizing that the factors contributing to a reading disability are varied and may be multiple. For example, an important part of the intake study is the medical examination given to each child in the program. Where necessary and in accordance with the medical report, referral for ophthalmological or neurological study is made by the social worker or the school nurse. In cases where special treatment is recommended, the social worker helps the parent to follow through.

Because many children with reading difficulty have a history of delayed or defective speech, it is important to have a speech diagnosis for each child and the speech improvement department has cooperated in providing these examinations. In cases where the speech difficulty requires direct attention by the specialist, speech therapy is carried on.

End Term Evaluation

Usually during May, a testing program is carried out. The results of the achievement tests are analyzed to evaluate the progress of each pupil and also to provide statistical data regarding the reading progress of the total group. An evaluation of the pupil's personal-social adjustment is obtained from the classroom teacher by asking her to complete the following:

1. Has there been evidence of positive change in the pupil's attitude toward reading and other school subjects?
2. Has there been growth in the pupil's relationship with his classmates? Is he better integrated with the group? Is the group accepting him?
3. Is the pupil showing evidence of increased participation in classroom activities?
4. What problems does he present?

In Conclusion

The experience of the program has shown that poor reading is usually only one symptom of the disturbance of the pupils referred by the schools. Other evidences of maladjustment are reflected by the fact that at the time of admission to the reading clinic all of these pupils show marked signs of unhappiness and discouragement. By contrast, these children, with very few exceptions, at the time of leaving the program are noticeably more self-confident. Their improved personal-social development is confirmed by the opinions of parents and class teachers. Their reading growth is supported by the evidence of achievement tests. This positive development, occurring usually after years of failure, is due to no single approach or application of method. It results from favorable aspects of the program, not the least of which is the close integration of the instructional and clinical services.

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2. Individualizing Instruction in the Reading Skills Class

STELLE FEUERS

THIS IS ONE of what is hoped will be a mounting series of descriptive reports which chronicle the diversity of approaches, techniques, and organizational patterns associated with reading improvement programs.

Change, for the most part, is evolutionary—not revolutionary—in nature. And one of the most fundamental mechanisms of change in education is, in the final analysis, the acceptance or rejection on the part of the classroom teacher of applications and developmental practices.

Clymer,[1] Harris[2] and Traxler,[3] among other authors, have stressed the need for reports of evaluations of new reading programs and classroom techniques once they are put into operation.

In the fall a limited number of remedial reading classes referred to as reading skills classes were added to the curriculum for students in grades seven through twelve in the Beverly Hills Unified School District.

Remedial reading classes traditionally are grouped homogeneously according to age, grade, and reading level. They usually are associated with the student of poor scholastic ability. Because of the departmentalized organization of junior and senior high school classes, difficulties arise in terms of scheduling students of like grade and reading level for remedial reading groups. Furthermore, when it comes to the question of pupil selection, at least two types of students emerge who could benefit from the program. Each gives evidence of a wide discrepancy between reading ability and potential (the criterion for selection), but one is reading below grade level and has poor scholastic achievement, and the other is reading at grade level and has good scholastic achievement. Having to decide between them creates a problem although traditionally, the academically poor student is given priority. There is always inherent in any remedial program, the problem of stigma. Even the greatest of care may fail to eliminate, completely, adverse attitudes toward these classes.

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[1] Theodore W. Clymer. "The Real Frontier in Reading Research." *The Reading Teacher*, 12 (Dec. 1958), p. 95.

[2] Theodore L. Harris. "Implications for the Teacher of Recent Research in High School Reading." *High School Journal*, 39 (Jan. 1956), pp. 194-206.

[3] Arthur E. Traxler. "What Does Research Suggest About Ways to Improve Reading Instruction?" *Improving Reading in the Junior High School*, pp. 5-15. Proceedings of Conference, December 13-14, 1956, Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Office of Education, Secondary Schools, Bulletin 1957. No. 10. Washington 25, D. C.: United States Government Printing Office, 1957.

In the Beverly Hills schools it seemed that the problems associated with pupil selection, with scheduling, and with stigma could be circumvented by individualizing instruction in the reading skills class. In addition, other benefits might accrue from its utilization. As a result, referrals were made by the guidance counselors solely on the basis of a wide discrepancy between reading performance and potential, irrespective of scholastic achievement; and students were scheduled at random into classes coincident in time with their study hall period. Due to the random placement, students in each group spanned a wide range in all areas—for example, chronological age, up to four years; grade level, three years; reading level, six years. Intelligence quotients ranged from 90 to 130.

A daily, individual program was developed for each student based on his particular reading needs and interests, and all materials assigned to the student were on his reading level. Progress records were kept by the student. Answer keys were available which made all materials self-checking, and the students corrected their assignments immediately upon completion. Continuous diagnosis accompanied the planning of each program.

Reading materials were selected to suit each child's instructional level and need. Much material was self-selected by the student. In order to develop and sustain interest, a wide variety of source materials of differing lengths and content was used. At least three items were planned for each daily assignment. These were varied in kind and length so as to provide a change of pace.

Although experience with this program has been limited, it is possible to report certain observations. The mixing of age and grade groups seems to have eliminated the stigma usually associated with narrowly homogeneous reading groups. Furthermore, the contact with good students in the reading class seems to give the poorer student definite goals for which to strive. Individualized instruction also enables students to be added to or deleted from groups, or to shift from one group to another at any time without disrupting the program. Another plus factor is that cost for this type of program is comparatively low. It is entirely possible to do an effective job with, for the most part, one copy of each book used.

Currently, the program is functioning smoothly, student interest is high, student reading gains appear to be good. However, without appropriate research techniques, no definite scientific conclusions can be made.

It is considered essential that we pursue research—more and more of it to get a permanent, solid basis under our methodology. But for better or for worse, it is random trial and error, rather than rigorously controlled experimentation, which tends to characterize current classroom practices. For the difference between the scholar and the practitioner is that the scholar can suspend judgment until scientific validation is achieved, but the practitioner is faced with a daily, hourly choice; and, therefore, must make fundamental decisions. As a result, the classroom is the center of the developmental process as distinguished from the formalized research process. And the recording of the teacher's experience becomes critical in the search for developmental applications and techniques both emergent *and* traditional.

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B. JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

1. Classroom Application of Clinical Findings

JAMES JAN-TAUSCH

IT HAS often been said that there is a lag of at least two generations between the discovery of new, more effective educational practices and the common application of such practices in the classroom.

Despite this common knowledge, very few educators appear to be greatly concerned about the normal, well adjusted, and successful pupils who seem to profit from whatever experiences they are having in the classroom. It may be that there are many children who learn well enough despite the quality of the teaching, or that most of teaching is based on the ability of the normal well adjusted child to learn.

For those children who have failed to learn adequately in the classroom, despite the corrective efforts of the teacher, it is most important that we translate immediately that which we discover in the clinic to that which we do in the classroom. This is true both in the general sense and in terms of the specific child.

In order that we accomplish this, we must look at the processes involved. First, the clinician: The clinician makes a diagnosis by determining the nature of the disability and its cause or causes. He does this by observation, by interview, and by testing. Using these techniques, the clinician gathers pertinent evidence of the child's strengths in learning, weaknesses in learning, uncorrectable disability, and his compensatory assets.

With a mass of data before him, the clinician starts on the perilous journey which too often leads him, the child, and the classroom teacher astray.

The first problem is the selection of the data that is pertinent. Abundance of evidence may distract or confuse the unskilled diagnostician, while a dearth of evidence may lead to incorrect conclusions. Assuming that the clinician is competent in the selection of that which is pertinent, his next difficulty lies in the interpretation of the data collected. Interpretation has two facets—one, the meaning of the data to the clinician, and two, the ability of the clinician to describe his interpretation. This task is equal to that of the artist who must appreciate what he senses, and who then must create that which expresses his appreciation.

As in the case of the artist, the clinician finds it impossible to leave himself out of his creations—I mean interpretations. When the clinician is in need of status or power, he may find it necessary to use technical terms or expressions known only to himself and other clinicians. The result of such efforts is equivalent to that of a person talking to himself. For example, "This child suffers from strephosymbolia. This is probably due to his having monocular vision or confused laterality. It is suggested that he be treated as a mirror reader and efforts be made to change his mixed dominance to right cerebral dominance."

In addition to the ineffectiveness of the use of technical language, there is also the clinician's description and recommendation which is so generalized that it not only fails to convey meaning, but in most cases it makes the classroom teacher feel even more helpless than she was before the child was referred to the clinician.

If the written diagnosis is the means of communication between the clinician and the classroom teacher, the teacher's understanding of what the specific disability is and the corrective procedure to be followed to eliminate or compensate for it will largely depend upon the *clinician's* knowledge of the classroom environment (that is, the teacher's competence, the composition of the class, and the materials available, etc.) and his own competence as a classroom teacher, or it will depend on the classroom teacher's competence as a clinician and her knowledge of corrective techniques and her adaptability in the use of these techniques.

Second, the classroom teacher: Most classroom teachers who have responded to the question, "In what form do you profit most from the clinician?" have replied along these lines: "First, I want information about the child I didn't have before I referred the child to the clinician. Second, I want psychological insight into why a recommended teaching method is most effective with the particular child referred. Third, I want to see a demonstration of that method and the use of the appropriate materials by an expert. I would respect the clinician more if he could make such a demonstration. Fourth, I want friendly expert criticism of my own efforts to put these into practice."

In New Jersey, the State Department of Education has approved a combination clinician-classroom teacher under the title, Remedial Instructor. In my opinion, this person functions most effectively in the classroom application of clinical findings.

The Remedial Instructor, upon receiving a referral, goes to the child's classroom and (1) discusses, with the teacher, the child and problem as the teacher sees it, and (2)observes the child in a learning situation in his normal classroom setting.

Fortified with the information he has obtained, the Remedial Instructor does whatever diagnostic testing seems appropriate and then consults with the school psychologist, school social worker, guidance counselor, school medical personnel, and any other available and involved educational resource. As a result of this consultation, an assessment is made of the child in terms of his assets and his disabilities. The teacher is then included in the consultation and a plan of remediation is determined. The classroom teacher finds the responsibility for the solution of the child's problem shared by others, depending on the nature of the problem. In terms of the specific learning disability, the Remedial Instructor makes himself available for interpretation of the findings of the special services personnel, as well as to demonstrate recommended teaching procedures with which the classroom teacher is unfamiliar. The Remedial Instructor assists the teacher in the classroom on request and helps in getting needed special or new educational materials.

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C. JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

1. Improved Diagnostic Procedures in Reading at the Junior High School Level

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THE PURPOSE of diagnosis of reading disability at any level is threefold: (1) to investigate underlying causes of the problem, (2) to study its essential characteristics with a view towards correcting existing difficulties where feasible, and (3) to alleviate any other aspects of the problem that are treatable.

The most effective diagnosis for a child with a reading disability would be one conducted at a child guidance clinic where a multi-disciplinary approach is used and all causative factors are explored. However, since so few children can obtain this type of examination, it would be more realistic to focus on how schools might use existing facilities advantageously. For illustrative purposes three cases will be presented which could have been handled in their own schools, but instead were referred to me as a reading consultant.

The first case is that of Earl, in seventh grade, with average intelligence, reading at about fifth-grade level. He attended a school in a suburban community where standards of expectation and general level of achievement were quite high. Thus, his situation seemed fairly hopeless to him.

In conferences at the school, his parents had been given conflicting advice from various teachers. These suggestions included that Earl try harder, that he read aloud each night to his parents, that they closely supervise his home work making certain that he complete assignments no matter how much time was involved, and finally that they stop worrying about him because he seemed such a likeable boy and that these traits would certainly help him get along in the world.

The reading examination covered quantitative and qualitative evaluations of all aspects of Earl's reading. Analysis of test results and observation of his performance revealed confusion of words of similar configuration so that he frequently lost the sense of what he was reading. Word recognition difficulties were also apparent when he encountered specialized vocabularly in his various textbooks. On paragraph meaning tests, Earl had to re-read selections constantly in order to answer questions. His scores were at about fifth-grade level. Thus, his poor functioning in school was due to his inadequate reading ability. None of the recommendations given by his teachers could have alleviated Earl's problem until his skills in reading improved.

The question arises how could the school handle Earl's case and many others with similar problems?

When a child is functioning well below capacity, his problem should be brought to the attention of *one* liason person in the school who should take responsibility for the case. In order to gain a fuller understanding of the child's difficulties, to the extent that it is feasible and necessary, this person would try to investigate factors causally related to the child's reading disability. These would generally include intellectual level, cultural and environmental background, physical defects, emotional adjustment, and educational experiences.

Data from the child's records may supply some of this information, while his teachers could throw light on his present functioning. Reading evaluation could be conducted by the reading teacher in the school. Other aspects of the diagnosis may require the services of specialists within the school or community.

When all the material is collated, suggestions for coping with the child's difficulties would be based on the findings of the examination. The person in charge of the case would then convey such recommendations to the personnel at the school, the parents, and others involved in the treatment plan.

The second case, Joyce, age 13, in eighth grade, IQ 120, was reading around seventh-grade level and obtaining grades of C in English literature and history. The school psychologist informed Joyce's mother that the girl was very

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bright and was college material. However, the mother was to leave her daughter alone because her problem stemmed from strephosymbolia and there was no treatment for that. Therefore, the mother sought outside help for Joyce.

The reading examination revealed difficulty with comprehension especially where material required deeper interpretation and reflective thinking. This seemed puzzling in light of Joyce's high intelligence.

In discussing areas of deficiency with the girl, it was found that she rarely read selections carefully because in school her teacher placed an inordinate amount of emphasis on rapid reading and looking mainly for key words. Joyce was relieved when one major source of her problem was identified and more effective ways of reading were pointed out, such as developing flexibility in dealing with different kinds of reading matter and adjusting rate according to the demands of the material.

With regard to the reported strephosymbolia, Joyce did show mixed dominance but this was not the basis of her present difficulty. Joyce's reading problem could have been identified in her school if the reading specialist had been consulted. Undoubtedly there are many other students who show the same characteristics in reading and need similar help.

The third case brought to my attention was that of Pedro, a non-reader, age 15, born in Puerto Rico. He spoke English with difficulty and appeared to have low-average intelligence on a non-verbal intelligence scale.

Standardized reading tests were not administered because Pedro would have failed miserably and his feelings of worthlessness would only have been intensified. Instead he was seen for six brief sessions where various word-analysis procedures and materials were tried out to determine ways in which he could learn to read.

To begin with, the words *walk* and *don't walk* were printed for him. After he learned these words, additional functional vocabulary related to his everyday needs was introduced along with materials devised for adult illiterates. He was very responsive not only to these materials but also to some meant for younger children. Furthermore, he demonstrated ability to learn by all major word-analysis procedures. With this information available, an appropriate program was planned for him.

Since there are so many children like Pedro in junior high schools in large cities, it is apparent that the schools must develop programs suited to such children's needs. This calls for expanded services, well-trained teachers who understand how to deal with such problems and appropriate reading materials and other aids.

To summarize, diagnosis can be carried out at many different levels, depending on the depth of the analysis indicated, the availability of staff and the experience and skill of the examiner. Furthermore, it is not possible to prescribe diagnostic procedures which are to be rigidly followed, because the nature of each child's problem determines the appropriate plan. A reading diagnosis would generally involve administration of standardized reading, vocabulary and spelling tests combined with qualitative evaluation and informal learning procedures. There are some cases, though, where tests may be omitted and other measures substituted. Thus, a skillfully conducted diagnosis with sound recommendations for treatment can serve as a linkage in a child's life between what he was and what it is possible for him to become.

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2. General Principles Underlying Good Remedial Instruction

LYNETTE SAINE

THIS DISCUSSION of general principles underlying good remedial instruction is based on the realization that the effective junior high school reading program is fundamentally developmental in its approach to reading as part of a well-integrated language-arts or communications program. The corrective and/or remedial aspects of the program are not considered as isolated services for small groups and individuals, with no definite relationship to the school program. Rather, correction and remediation are provided through class, laboratory, or clinic with the realization that within the course of reading development some students will reach blocks or face frustrations which they cannot readily overcome without special help. Wide research has shown that some of the most prevalent factors are school practices, emotional disturbances, family and peer relationships, visual difficulties, dominance, brain damage, hearing, and general physical or health problems.[1]

It is realized, furthermore, that reading at the high school level is frequently neglected; therefore, the principles which will be outlined will focus heavily on the functioning of the program rather than upon the more specialized techniques involved in actual instructional procedures. Throughout the discussion the ideas rest heavily on a general treatment of corrective and remedial instruction, done by Robinson in her contribution to the theme of "Development in and Through Reading;"[2] upon a practical volume on the general subject of reading difficulties by Bond and Tinker;[3] on recent psychological applications to the area by Smith and DeChant,[4] and upon brief case studies provided in a carefully documented volume by Spache.[5] Also materials found in the reports of the National Reading Conference and articles in the *Journal of Developmental Reading* permeate many of the ideas presented in this paper.

The Principles in Summary

In the interest of good remedial instruction the following principles are imperative. Space does not permit their implementation. The complete manuscript may be secured from the author.

1. The faculty and staff should be in substantial agreement as to what constitutes a retarded reader.
2. The remedial or corrective services in junior high school should be structured with full realization of the peculiarities and unanswered questions which exist at this level of secondary education.
3. The effectiveness of corrective or remedial services should be recognized as directly dependent upon the present status of the developmental program, the extent to which a remedial program is needed within the school, the degree of initial diagnosis required for its establishment, and the availability of persons qualified for participation in such a program.
4. Although the teacher must begin at the student's reading level, the sessions with individuals or small groups should be such: (a) that they focus on words that have intrinsic value in their lives, (b) that they develop comprehension with materials which have current significance for them, and (c) that they permit application and utilization of ideas in areas which demonstrate the values of reading.
5. Evaluation of progress in corrective and remedial reading should be a two-fold process in which (a) the student has come to terms with the facts of his reading status and participates continuously in setting and appraising the goals for improvement and (b) the teacher engages in continuous diagnosis and assesses all facets of reading status and then recommends the extent to which the student is ready for re-entry into the regular developmental reading program.
6. Since demonstrable success and increased independence in the use of reading skills are basic criteria for the efficacy of such a program, students who object to participating in remedial classes should not be forced to do so.

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[1] Helen M. Robinson. "Corrective and Remedial Instruction," Chapter XX, in the *Sixtieth Yearbook* of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part I, *Development in and Through Reading*, Edited by Nelson B. Henry. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1961, p. 362.

[2] *Ibid.*, p. 362.

[3] Guy L. Bond and Miles A. Tinker, *Reading Difficulties: Their Diagnosis and Correction*. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1957, p. 81.

[4] Henry P. Smith and Emerald V. DeChant, *Psychology in Teaching Reading*. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1961.

[5] George D. Spache. *Toward Better Reading*. Champaign, Illinois: Garrard Publishing Company, 1963.

C. JUNIOR HIGH LEVEL

1. Identification of Factors that Inhibit Progress in Reading

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EVERY effort should be made by a clinician in a reading diagnosis to identify factors which may inhibit a student's progress in reading. The handicapping conditions can then be corrected or minimized, and appropriate instructional procedures can be selected.

The retarded reader is here considered to be one who is so disabled in reading that he cannot meet the reading requirements at his school placement and cannot keep pace with his peers although he has the mental capacity to do so. He consequently needs clinical reading instruction.

Causal factors of reading retardation have been investigated, for the most part, with students after they became retarded readers. The identification of causal factors is not usually undertaken until retardation is pronounced. At this time the diagnostician identifies anomalies which may inhibit progress. These factors may or may not have been present when the student first began to have reading difficulties. It is impossible to project backwards to the time the first difficulties appeared to determine the exact cause of the problem. Consequently, the anomalies identified in a diagnostic reading examination are here regarded as inhibiting factors rather than the specific causes of retardation.

From research findings the following generalizations concerning inhibiting factors would be recognized: (1) many factors have been related to failure in reading by many reading experts; (2) those who are seriously retarded in reading often exhibit the greatest number of anomalies; (3) those factors which inhibit progress in reading for some students may not interfere with progress of others as people vary in their ability to adapt themselves to handicaps; and (4) no final identification can be made in some instances without the aid of allied professions.

Inhibiting Factors Most Commonly Related to Reading Retardation and Their Identification

Vision. There is general agreement that poor readers tend to be hyperopic; whereas, good readers are often myopic. Lack of binocular coordination is also a characteristic of some poor readers.

The most satisfactory means of identifying the presence of a visual problem is by means of a visual screening test, which includes tests for near and far point vision and binocular coordination. The inadequacy of the Snellen chart's measuring acuity at twenty feet becomes apparent. Examples of commercial visual screening tests which can be used by teachers or clinicians include the Keystone Visual Survey Test with the Telebinocular (Meadville, Pennsylvania), the Ortho-Rater (Bausch and Lomb, Rochester, New York), the Massachusetts Vision Test (Welch-Allen, Auburn, New York), and the Eames Eye Test (World Book Company).

A second means of identifying visual problems is through observation, as those described by Knox.[1]

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[1] Gertrude E. Knox, "Classroom Symptoms of Visual Difficulty," in *Clinical Studies in Reading II*, (Helen M. Robinson, Ed.), *Supplementary Educational Monographs*, No. 77, Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1953, pp. 97-101.

Hearing and Speech. Inadequate auditory acuity, discrimination, or memory and speech difficulties may interfere with reading progress, especially in phonic instruction.

An audiometer is the most accurate means of identifying loss in auditory acuity because it provides an assessment at different frequencies. It is definitely a more satisfactory means of identifying a hearing loss than the cruder whisper and watch-tick tests.

Students may be able to hear sounds but not to discriminate among them. Gross estimates of auditory discrimination can be gained from reading readiness tests; a more accurate test is Wepman's Auditory Discrimination Test (Language Research Associates, Chicago, Illinois) which assesses fine differences in the sounds of words.

Emotional Disturbances. Research shows that there is a relationship between emotional problems and reading. Different children react to failure differently; most retarded readers show signs of some degree of emotional maladjustment. The harder the student tries, the more frustrated he becomes. Frustration leads to a more difficult learning situation, and thus the spiral grows. Problems are intensified by low grades, pressures from parents, and the feeling of being stupid. Individual reading instruction, though not intended to be therapeutic, very often reduces frustration; and better adjustment results from improved reading skills.

Clinicians and teachers have identified emotional problems through observations, interviews, questionnaires, information from case histories, paper-and-pencil tests, and projective techniques.

Because no one pattern is descriptive of all who are emotionally disturbed, the clinician needs to be alert to different kinds of behavior, such as withdrawal; excessive quietness; excessive timidity; rebellion; nervous habits; physical manifestations as headaches, dizziness, boasting; bluffing; exaggerating; defiance; excessive dependence; aggression; sensitiveness to the opinions of others; resentment.

Interviews with parents, if conducted effectively, can be fruitful in several ways. They can provide information concerning the parents' attitudes and anxiety; family, peer, and school relationships; efforts to help child with school work and the pressures used; his interests and leisure-time activities. Such interviews also reveal how the child feels about himself and how the parents handled particular problems.

Personality tests of the paper-and-pencil type have been used with students whose reading does not interfere with the reading of the test. The results of these are often not especially helpful because the responses may be the "right" or the "good" ones instead of the one which reveals how the student really feels. Researchers and clinicians have used such tests as the California Test of Personality and Rogers Test of Personal Adjustment for such purposes. Sentence completion tests sometimes reveal how the student feels concerning himself and others.

In some clinics projective tests such as the Rorschach, Thematic Apperception Test, or Children's Apperception Test are administered if clinicians are trained to administer the tests and to interpret the results. In others, the clients are referred to professional sources for these tests.

Comfortable relations between the client and the diagnostician often yield the most information about emotional health. When the student is at ease with the examiner, he often expresses feelings and concerns that no test will reveal.

Brain damage. In the past decade there has been a growing interest in neurological abnormalities and reading. Individuals who have been diagnosed as such by neurologists usually exhibit extreme difficulties in learning to read.

Clients with gross neurological difficulties have observable physical handicaps. However, minimal brain damage is more difficult to identify, even by neurologists.

Case history information is extremely important in the identification of brain impairment, such as birth history; prematurity; extreme distractability; high body temperatures; poor equilibrium, and the like. The Trail Making Test (Indiana University Medical Center) now available for older clients has had encouraging results in the identification of minimal brain impairment.

Dominance. The question of the relationship of lateral dominance and reading is one of the most controversial issues in reading. Dominance can only be inferred from tests of laterality or preference of hand, foot, and eye. In some instances simple tests of kicking, bouncing a ball, and sighting have been used. The Harris Tests of Lateral Dominance (Psychological Corporation, New York) is standardized.

Environmental Factors. Environmental factors have been linked to reading retardation. Today there is much concern and research interest in the effect of cultural deprivation upon reading retardation. Various environmental factors appear to be related to the values placed upon reading and consequently the amount of reading which is done, such as: parents' attitudes toward the child, education, and reading; opportunities for intellectual discussions and meaningful experiences; reading materials found in the home; and foreign language spoken in the home.

Home visitations reveal important information concerning environmental factors but are not always feasible for a reading clinician. Keen observation and well-stated questions in obtaining a case history will be helpful in the identification of attitudes and interests. Such guides as The Minnesota Scale of Parents Opinions (University of Minnesota, Institute of Child Welfare) may also be helpful.

School Practices. Ineffective school practices which interfere with progress in reading are sometimes difficult to identify. Such factors as class size, lack of adjustment of instruction to the learner, inappropriate materials, poor teaching, overemphasis on any one area of reading (oral reading, phonics, etc.), the teacher's failure to identify and correct confusions, and lack of emphasis on the meaning of what is read or on the application of skills being learned may interfere with the progress of some children. Prolonged absences, frequent changes of schools, and failures or acceleration may have interfered with reading.

Inappropriate educational practices can be determined through school records, comments of teachers, cumulative records, case histories, interviews, or conversation with the student being tested.

Most cases of reading retardation do not fall neatly into one of the foregoing categories; instead several factors may inhibit progress. The most severely retarded in reading often exhibit more inhibiting factors than those who are less severely retarded.

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